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FROM

THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL  
OF ECONOMICS











# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Issued Monthly  
with Illustrations

SEPTEMBER, 1904—FEBRUARY, 1905

Volume XL



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# The CHAUTAUQUAN



*A Magazine of  
Things Worth While*



## SOCIAL PROGRESS



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BACH: GERMAN MASTER  
MUSICIAN  
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HOW TO STUDY MUSIC  
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# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

A Monthly Magazine of Things Worth While

*Official Publication of Chautauqua Institution*

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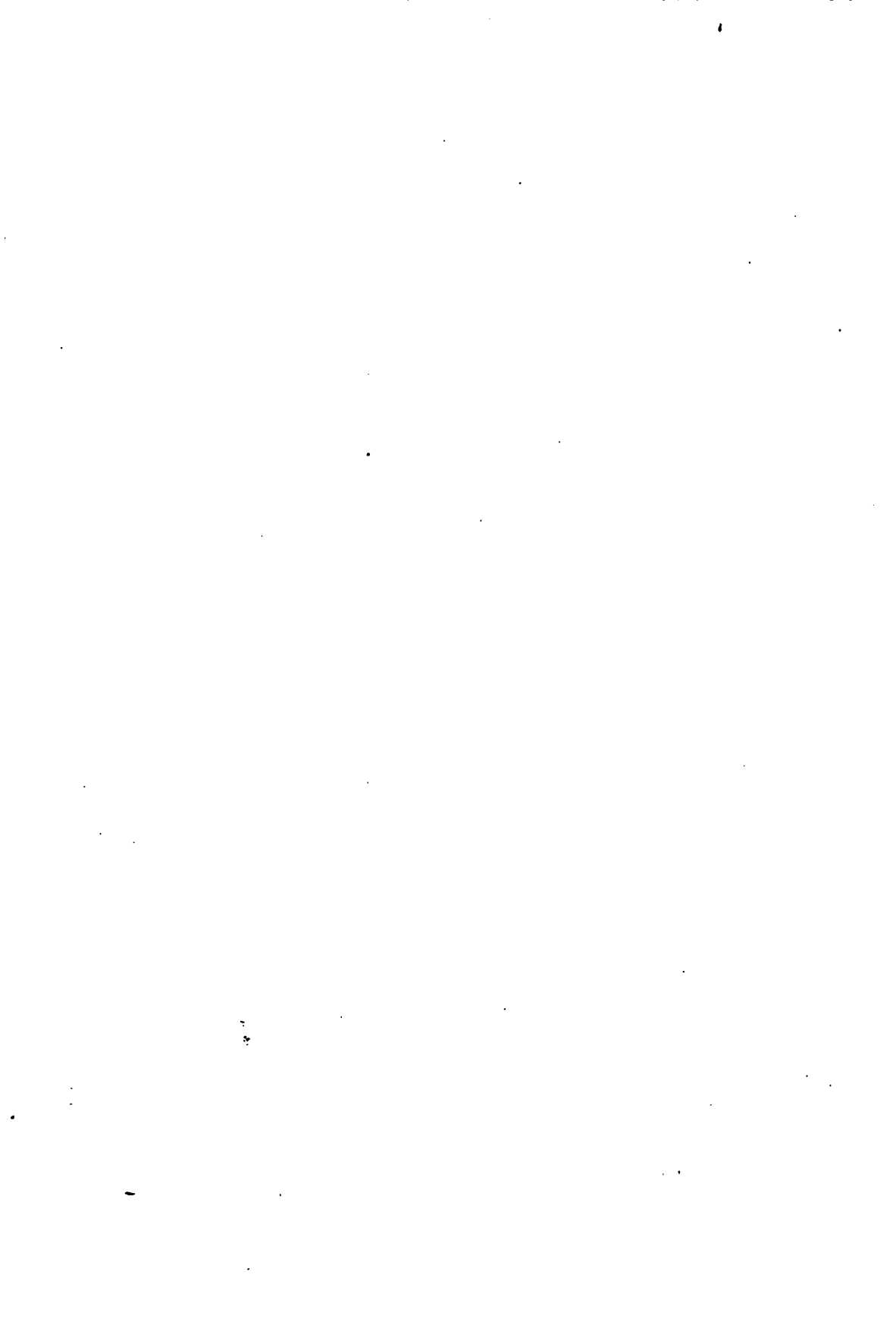
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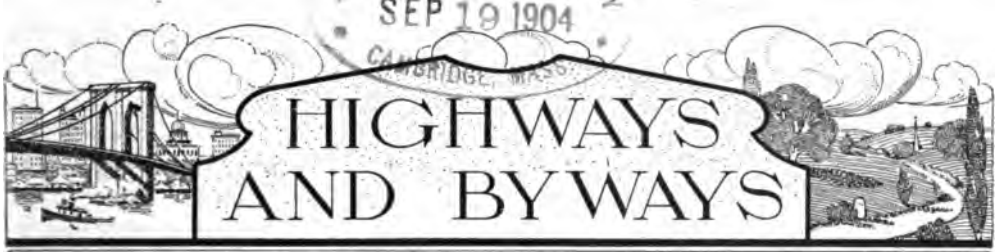
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# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

VOL. XL.

HARVARD COLLEGE  
SEPTEMBER, 1904

No. I.



FOR some time prior to the Russian naval defeats of last month and successive advances on outposts of Port Arthur the operations in the theater of the Far-Eastern war received less attention than questions regarding the internal situation in Russia. This is not unnatural considering the paucity of news and the uncertainty of the developments in Manchuria. While Japanese strategy has been admired, the rate of the advance into the interior has disappointed the champions of the yellow power. It is recognized, too, that Kuropatkin's plans have been practically determined for him by the necessities of the situation. When the war opened, Russia had neither troops nor guns in Manchuria. It is doubtful whether she had 50,000 men in the whole province, including the garrisons and the railway guards. Indeed, it is now contended that the Japanese, had they been better informed or more enterprising, would have had little difficulty in overrunning Manchuria, capturing Port Arthur and carrying everything before them. The railway service, moreover, was wholly inefficient a first, also on account of inadequate organization. The Russian commander needed time above all else, and everything he has done, including apparent blunders—the resistance on the Yalu, the southward “relief movement” which failed, the abandonment of important points and passes—is supposed to have been in reality good strategy for a man in his desperate position.

Now, it is alleged, he has a respectable army, estimated at 120,000 in the field, and reinforcements are arriving at the rate of 2,000 a day. His intentions are still a profound mystery, however, and whether he will retire farther north and continue to elude the enemy, is a question upon which opinions differ. Pro-Russian military experts insist that he has lost nothing, and that all the Japanese successes will prove indecisive and futile. Other experts think that he will never be able to assume the offensive and dislodge the intrenched Japanese from the positions they have occupied.

Be this as it may, occurrences in the empire have challenged universal attention as sidelights on the great conflict. The war appears to be highly unpopular, and the Russian aristocracy has been compelled to display a spirit of reform and liberalism in order to allay discontent and enlist sympathy. Count Tolstoy in a ten-column dissertation on the war which appeared in English and French papers, not only denounced the government of Russia for provoking Japan by its aggressions, falsehoods and follies, but asserted that the recruits and veterans as well as the masses, were sullen, dissatisfied and hostile—unwilling to fight and angry at the policy which caused the needless war.

A similar indictment of the Russian autocracy is launched by a “high official” in the czar's service in the pages of a British review. This article is even more noteworthy, as evidence, than the sermon

of the great reformer and moralist. It accuses the czar of ignorant arrogance and obstinacy, and blames him for the whole Eastern tragedy. Whereas Tol-

stoy calls him an "unfortunate and entangled young man" who is the dupe and victim of reactionary and selfish advisers, the high official says that he is superstitious and overbearing, loath to profit by frank and honest counsel and absurdly self-confident. He adds:

Taking seriously the czar's imaginary mission, he meddled continually with every affair,

state, domestic and foreign, thwarting the course of justice, undermining legality, impoverishing his subjects, boasting a fervent love of peace, yet plunging his tax-burdened people into the horrors of a sanguinary and needless war.

Those who believe that the war will lead to a general reform in Russia, the system of suppression and oppression having ended in disaster, find support in some measures already proclaimed. One is favorable to the Jews. It repeals a decree which prohibited them from residing within fifty miles of the western frontier. Another abolishes the system of punish-

ment of political crimes by "administrative order" (that is, without trial and opportunity for defense) in all except extraordinary cases. This "system" has been one of the worst abuses of autocracy, and its victims number tens of thousands. As there seems to be no special occasion for these reforms, it is supposed that failure and European criticism have aroused the government and shamed it into concessions to liberalism.

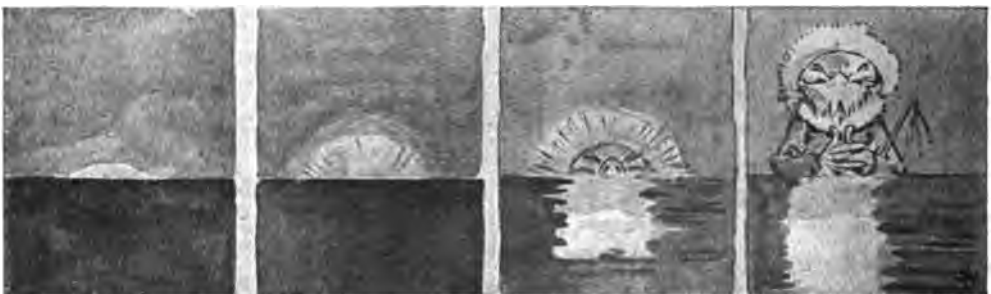


### Assassination, and After, in Russia

The above remarks on the internal situation in the great Slav empire receive striking emphasis from the awful fate of Von Plehve, the powerful minister of the interior and the supposed leader of the reactionary element of Russia's ruling class. Von Plehve was hated by many different sections of the population for as many reasons. He was regarded as a cruel, harsh, cold reactionary and tyrant, and his life was constantly in danger. His predecessor in the Department of the Interior, Tipiaguine, had been shot and killed by a revolutionary student, and when he proved himself as reactionary, as hostile to the liberal tendencies of the country, as that minister, and far more capable and more vigorous, he became a "marked man" with the terrorists, who have renewed an activity which recalls the bloody period of the early eighties of the last century. A few months before the assassination of Von



COUNT MURAVIEFF  
Appointed to succeed von Plehve, Russian Minister of Interior.



SUNRISE IN FINLAND

—From Berlin Jugend.

Plehve by means of a bomb the governor general of Finland, Bobrikoff was murdered by the son of a Finnish senator. A few weeks before that event the vice-governor of Elizabetpol, who had been severe in his dealings with the Armenians of Russia (whose church the government has despoiled and destroyed), was riddled with bullets in a crowded street. Other assassinations have occurred within the past six months, and a general, well-organized plot is believed to have been back of these terrorist deeds.

Long ago some English writer said that Russia was a despotism tempered by assassination. This phrase explains the recent fatal assaults as it did those to which it was first applied. Assassination as a political weapon is not justified or condoned by any thoughtful moralist, but there are circumstances, it is widely recognized, which render it inevitable, human nature being what it is. Violence begets violence; repression invites reprisals, and misgovernment leads to insurrection and revolt.

Bobrikoff and Plehve were servants of the autocracy, but the liberal elements regarded them as active agents and instigators of the policies which they put in force. Bobrikoff was arrogant and overbearing, but Plehve was personally a pleasant gentleman. The former was hated by the Finns alone; the latter by everybody who had a grievance against the government. Plehve was rather an administrator than a statesman and his training had not fitted him for the position to which he was promoted in April, 1902. He is now said by some to have favored gradual self-government for the Russians, but nothing in his brief ministerial career indicated such a belief. He sternly suppressed every manifestation of liberalism and independence in the press and in the *zemstvos* (provincial assemblies). He fought for autocracy and absolutism. He was accused of having encouraged the anti-Jewish atrocities in order that attention might be diverted

from questions of reform. He was severe to Poland and Finland. He was generally regarded as the strongest representative of the worst features of the Russian system.

After his "removal," what? There are those who predict a "new era," an era of reforms. Even the Far-Eastern war, it is said, may be terminated in a fair way now that De Witt's most formidable rival is gone. There is reason to doubt this. Plehve was powerful, but his apparent tendencies did not die with him. The re-



WJATSCHESLAV  
VON PLEHVE  
Russian Minister of  
the Interior, assassinated, July 28.

actionary element is still in the ascendant, and while concessions to liberalism will be made, must be made, they will not be made immediately. Some Russian editors are bold enough to urge the opening of the Russian door to western influences; even a "responsible ministry" has been proposed, though a responsible cabinet implies a parliament and a constitution. In the immediate future deeper reaction and more extreme repression are more likely than reforms worthy of the name. But after the war the necessity for reorganization will make itself felt throughout the empire, and the aristocracy will not be able to prevent it. The revival of the terror may hasten the coming changes somewhat, but not perceptibly.



## Democratic Ticket and Platform

What had seemed beyond the range of political possibility was accomplished at St. Louis by the national Democratic convention. The party is "reorganized," in control of the conservatives, and prac-

tically back where it was in 1896, before the free-silver wing under Mr. Bryan captured it. What is even more extraordinary, politically speaking, the radical element is reconciled and submissive, if by no means satisfied with the present state of affairs.

The story of the convention is familiar. The nomination of Judge Alton B. Parker was a surprise to no one, though greater opposition to him had been expected than was developed in the convention. The other candidacies, including that of Mr. Cleveland, failed to exhibit the strength with which they had been credited, and Judge Parker was nominated on the first ballot, and under the time-honored two-thirds rule which had previously been reaffirmed without challenge or discussion. Ex-Senator Henry G. Davis of West Virginia, was likewise nominated on the first ballot without a serious contest.

The nominations were preceded by a long, strenuous and earnest struggle over the platform of the party. The fight was a three-cornered one. The more aggressive "reorganizers" of the East insisted on a very moderate and cautious declaration of principles. Mr. Bryan and his adherents demanded the readoption, with some modifications, of the platform of 1900, while a third faction urged material concessions for the sake of concord and harmony. The radicals secured important concessions, especially in connection with the planks on the tariff and the trusts, but they were forced, in committee, to abandon free silver, the income tax and anti-injunction planks. When the platform was reported to the convention as the unanimous expression of the representative committee it was received with satisfaction and surprise. Its adoption, without debate, speedily followed.

But it was silent on the financial question. The eastern delegates had prepared a "gold plank," recognizing in brief the establishment of the gold standard and the disappearance, by reason of

natural conditions (unprecedented, in recent years, supplies of the yellow metal) of the need of silver coinage. But Mr. Bryan opposed this plank with resolute vigor and succeeded in defeating the reorganizers.

It is the omission of this plank which caused the most sensational and dramatic episode of the several sessions of the convention. Several hours after the nomination of Judge Parker a peremptory message was received from him by a New York delegate stating that in view of the silence of the platform on the money question he wished the convention to know that he regarded the gold standard as "firmly and irrevocably established" and that, in the event of his election, he should act in accordance with this conviction. He added that if the convention had any objection to this position he could not accept the nomination.

This bold message from the "silent candidate," as Judge Parker had been called, had a startling effect. Conferences and an exciting debate of several hours' duration followed, and finally a reply was ordered by a decidedly overwhelming



THE PLEASED DEMOCRACY

The Donkey—Say, but this is fine! That's the first time I've been able to make those two wings work together in ten years.

—From *Minneapolis Journal*.

majority to be sent to Judge Parker informing him that his position on the standard question was not unacceptable to the convention, and that the silence of the platform merely signified that money was not in any sense an issue in this year's campaign. Thus indirectly the convention notified its candidate that it accepted the gold standard and its consequences, and that in declaring himself a supporter of the standard Judge Parker was not at war with the party.

This action has been variously interpreted, some praising Judge Parker's "manly and courageous stand" and others regarding it as an adroit political stroke. That it has "saved the situation" for the Democrats with many sound money men, is recognized by all impartial observers. The money question will not be a live issue in the campaign.

Reverting to the platform adopted by the convention, it is generally regarded as a moderate production except where Mr. Bryan succeeded in putting some vigor into it. The protective system is denounced as robbery of the many to enrich the few, but all that is proposed practically is "a revision and a gradual reduction of the tariff to a revenue basis." All private monopoly is condemned and stringent regulation of trusts is favored, as well as the withdrawal of protective duties which shelter them in the home market. The platform demands ultimate freedom and independence for the Philip-

pinis, and an early promise by congress of such independence. The labor plank is general and "cuts both ways." Such practices as have been witnessed in Colorado are condemned, and the rights of labor are declared to be just as "vested" and sacred as the rights of capital.

On the whole, the two platforms of the "great parties" present no sharp, clean-cut, definite lines. The situation is totally unlike that of 1900 or of 1896, and it is apparent that the campaign will turn on the personalities of the candidates and the "spirit" and tendencies of the organizations they respectively represent. The indications are that Judge Parker will be supported by the gold Democrats with considerable enthusiasm. As to the other wing of the party, it will remain loyal and "regular" notwithstanding the "reorganization."



## The Minor Party Nominations

It is doubtless true, as has been said, that the American temperament (practical, impatient, strenuous, bent on immediate results) and the American form of government, with its "checks and balances" and comparative rigidity, do not favor the growth of minor parties. Certainly the average voter is loath to "throw away his vote," and a vote for a party which has no chance or expectation of winning is regarded as a vote thrown away.



GETTING THE OLD PORCH IN SHAPE  
—From the Cleveland Plain Dealer.



GETTING READY FOR A HOME CAMPAIGN  
—From the Cleveland Plain Dealer.



Nevertheless in studying the intellectual and higher political life of a people the movements of the parties that represent small but earnest and convinced



THOMAS E. WATSON  
of Georgia, Populist  
nominee for  
President.

groups of citizens cannot be ignored. The indirect influence of such organizations and currents is far greater than their direct influence. Great parties are accused of seeking place, power and spoils; this charge, at all events, does not lie against those who work for ideas which they cannot possibly hope to see immediately adopt-

ed and completely realized.

We have spoken of the Socialist party and its nominations. Since then the Populists and the Prohibitionists have placed their tickets in the field of national politics, and both of these parties deserve more attention than they are receiving in the daily press.

The Populists are now reunited, and of course fusion with the Democrats was out of the question this year, owing to the supremacy in that party of the anti-Bryan and "conservative" forces. They have nominated Thomas E. Watson of Georgia (a well-known orator, writer and historian) for president, and Thomas H. Tribbles of Nebraska for vice president. They have reaffirmed the platform of 1892, known as the Omaha platform, which contains the following important planks;

The issuance of money should be a purely governmental function, the bank-note circulation being a special privilege in the interest of the few rather than of the people.

The railways, telegraphs and tele-

phones should be owned and operated by the government, and all public utilities that are natural monopolies should be similarly treated.

Alien ownership of land should be prohibited.

Government by injunction and imprisonment without trial by jury should be abolished.

Special privileges should be withdrawn from all trusts and monopolies which are not "natural" monopolies and cannot be superseded by the government.

All corporations engaged in interstate commerce should be uniformly regulated by federal law.

The Populists once polled over a million votes for candidates standing on this radical platform. They have in the past carried states and elected senators, representatives, governors and judges. After eight years of "fusion" and division and internal disturbance they again appear as a separate party. What strength will they develop this year? Are they "dead" as a party, as the daily press asserts?

The Prohibitionists have nominated the Rev. Silas C. Swallow of Pennsylvania for president. Dr. Swallow is a vigorous and able campaigner, and his fight for good government in his own state has given him national distinction.

In the Prohibition platform the destruction of the liquor traffic (the parent of all evil) is declared to be the paramount issue before the American people, and the alleged issues between the Republicans and Democrats are declared to be largely fictitious and hollow. Recognizing the propriety of Prohibition opinion on other questions under discussion, the platform goes on to favor:

The initiative and referendum.

Reform of divorce laws.

Mental and moral qualifications for the suffrage.

Nonpartisan treatment of the tariff question by a commission.

Uniform laws for the United States and all dependencies and possessions (this is construed as an anti-imperialist declaration.)

The election of federal senators by the people.

There was an attempt on the part of some Prohibitionists to make General Miles their candidate for president. It was argued that General Miles (who, by the way, was a candidate for the Democratic nomination) would bring the party several hundred thousand new votes. However, these votes would not have been Prohibition votes, and they would hardly have been a source of strength to the party. General Miles himself, an advocate of temperance, never was a Prohibitionist. His nomination would have been an act of doubtful opportunism.



## Race Issue in Current Politics

Ignoring partisan construction (or misconstruction, as the independent voter would say) of the "race planks" of the two great party platforms, what is the real meaning of the race issue in its present aspect? A New England Republican paper, the *Boston Advertiser*, has directed attention to the fact that "for the first time in its history the Republican party admits the fact of white-man rule in the South and suggests that it be recognized by cutting down the representation" of the southern states in the House of Representatives. The paper goes on to say:

This year the party goes on record as saying that the Filipinos have the largest degree of civil liberty they ever enjoyed; and it carefully ignores the Filipino demand for such a full independence as Lincoln gave the negro, and many Republicans now believe that Lincoln made a mistake in doing just that. It would be idle to deny that this spirit is not the same which swayed the party from 1860 to 1868. But it would be just as far out of the way to claim that the party's opinions are not those of Americans, gener-

ally. As many Republican leaders at Washington have said, Lincoln's policy was made by the force of circumstances.

It is certainly significant that the Republican platform does not demand the rigid enforcement of the Fifteenth Amendment, which forbids discrimination in suffrage, and merely favors the reduction of the representation of those states which have "unconstitutionally" limited the suffrage. The Democrats criticize this plank as unsound, because unconstitutional limitation, they say, is void

and ineffective, any citizen discriminated against having the remedy in his own hands—namely, an appeal to the courts. On the other hand, it is admitted by the Republicans that reduction of representation as a penalty for constitutional limitation of the suffrage would hit New England and other parts of the North as well as the South, and this would not be a popular or practical policy.

The Democratic platform does not go as far as many individual Democrats, especially of the South, have been disposed to go for some time. The so-called "race plank" does not demand the repeal of the Fifteenth Amendment, and does not refer to the disfranchising acts of the southern states. It merely deprecates the revival of the race question by the Republican convention. This position is a logical corollary of the belief that the suffrage problem has been solved in the South, that there is no longer any discrimination, and that now and henceforth any citizen, white or colored, can vote if



THOMAS TAGGART  
Chairman Democratic National Committee.

he be possessed of certain qualifications in the way of literacy, property, etc.

So far, therefore, as the platform raises any definite race issue at all, it is



PORFIRIO DIAZ  
Relected President of Mexico.

simply as to the desirability of attempting a reduction in the House and in the electoral colleges. The general impression is that the Republicans will press this question in the campaign, as the public opinion of the North has manifested no interest in the litigation and agitation that have followed the disfranchising acts

and clauses leveled at the black population.



## Our Negro Population Today

In discussing social composition and the assimilation of aliens by the American republic it may be doubted whether the average citizen realizes the importance of the problem of the "Afro-American," the native born negro. Suffrage questions are important, but secondary after all. The industrial and moral status of the negro should receive much more attention than it does, especially in the North.

Partisan treatment of the negro question is not very helpful. It is rather the reverse, but there is much in the recent census bulletin on the negro population that can be considered with profit. Only a few of the noteworthy facts brought out can be adverted to here.

According to the last census, the number of negroes in the country (including ii and Porto Rico) is 9,200,000—

a larger number than is found in any other country outside of Africa. Nine-tenths of these live in the southern states. There are nearly 4,000,000 negroes engaged in "gainful occupations," these breadwinners constituting 45.2 per cent of the colored population. The percentage is very high indeed, for of the white population of the South it is 34.2, and for the total white population of the country it is 37.3. Still, not all these negroes are strictly speaking industrious, for he who works a little, and is idle and shiftless most of the year is entered as a breadwinner, on his own description of himself.

There has been progress in negro education. The percentage of illiteracy has decreased rapidly since 1890. Says the census bulletin: "Illiteracy among negroes is about seven times as common as among whites, and this ratio between the races has not altered materially in the last ten years. Illiteracy among southern negroes is about four times that among southern whites. If the per cent of illiterates should fall in each succeeding ten years by as great an amount as it did between 1890 and 1900, an improbable assumption, it would reach zero about 1940."

There has been a decided increase in the proportion of negro marriages, though this may be due more to industrial conditions than to moral elevation. A somewhat unfortunate symptom is the tendency to leave the rural regions for the cities. The increase of negroes in the country districts for the decade was but 14.6 per cent, while the increase for the cities was nearly 32 per cent. The agricultural laborers among the colored number 1,320,000, while the number of farmers, planters and overseers was 752,000, an increase of 31 per cent.

That the South needs the thrifty, intelligent and efficient negro is shown by the cry for immigration, for more labor and enterprise in all agricultural industries. The disfranchisement question may

be regarded as settled, the North having accepted the accomplished fact; but there is room for more work along educational and economic lines among the colored citizens of the country.



### Southern Suffrage in Court Again

In view of the discouraging experience of those who have attacked the constitutionality of the new suffrage law in Alabama—the supreme court of the United States having twice declared itself unable to deal with the question on its merits—no high hopes were entertained in connection with the new suffrage case which had reached that tribunal of last resort. It affected the suffrage provision of the new constitution of Virginia and of the act based thereon, but the essential question was the same as in the Alabama suits.

Whatever opinion one may hold as to political rights in general and the rights of the colored men in particular, it is of the utmost importance that the problem of negro disfranchisement as it now presents itself should be fundamentally considered and solved by the federal judiciary. The Fifteenth Amendment, prohibiting the states from limiting the right to vote on grounds of race and color, has not been repealed or amended. It is as vital and binding as any other part of the constitution, and laws inconsistent with it are null and void. *Are* the new southern suffrage laws null and void? If so, the South should know it, be the consequences what they may. The South is in favor of the repeal of the amendment, but it does not advocate nullification. If the suffrage laws are not in conflict with the amendment, the North and the friends of equal privileges should know it. With such knowledge would come acceptance of the *status quo* and the cessation of a disturbing and unpleasant agitation.

The Virginia suffrage law disfran-

chises the great majority of the black citizens of that state. It is regarded in the North as a manifest evasion of the Fifteenth Amendment—of its spirit if not of its letter. The negroes of the state object to the discriminative provisions of the act, not to the tests and prerequisites which it imposes. But the state, through its attorney general, makes a strong and plausible defense.

It is argued the suffrage article of the new constitution does not contravene the Fifteenth Amendment because it does not in *terms*

discriminate against any citizen on account of race, color or previous condition of servitude. So long as that amendment is formally respected, the argument continues, each state has an unquestionable right to regulate its own electoral affairs: and, this being granted, it is competent for a state to adopt as tests of fitness characteristics which, though possessed by both white and colored citizens, are possessed by the whites in greater proportion than by the blacks. Among such tests are literacy, general intelligence, property, military service in time of war, etc.

The soundness of this reasoning is not open to question, but it may be doubted whether it meets the real point in the southern disfranchisement cases. A property or educational test *fairly and uniformly applied* would be constitutional even if it resulted in disfranchising all black men and very few whites. The alleged vice of the laws attacked is discrimination. Whether the so-called "grandfather clause," which takes away the right to vote for a citizen otherwise qualified



DOMINGO OBALDIA  
New Minister from  
Panama to the  
United States.

because his grandfather did not perform military service in time of war, is discriminative, is what lawyers call a "close question." Unfortunately the supreme court found itself unable to deal with the merits of the Virginia cases and the issue is left undecided.



## Labor and the Open Shop

In a recent issue we spoke of the importance which the "open shop" question has assumed in the labor-capital controversy. Since that time the matter has become even more vital and acute by reason of certain sweeping decisions rendered by several courts. The effect of these judicial utterances is to throw grave doubt on the legality of the "closed shop" contracts and agreements in a number of industrial states.



THE LATE PAUL  
KRUGER  
President of the  
former Trans-  
vaal Republic.

In an opinion of the appellate court of Cook County, Illinois, it was held that an agreement for the employment of none but union men, when forced upon an employer by a threat of injury, is not merely void, but criminal. The argument was as follows, in brief: Monopolies are contrary to public policy, and a contract stipulating for the exclusion of non-union men from a branch of employment, or even, as in the Illinois case, from a single factory, tends to establish a monopoly in labor. Such contracts, even when there is no coercion on either side back of them, are illegal and voidable. When they are the result of "duress," that is, when the employer is compelled to enter into such contracts by the threat of a strike, they

are criminal and punishable under the anti-conspiracy law.

In the Illinois case, however, the closed-shop question was discussed incidentally. It was not involved in the issue before the court, and consequently the expressions of the court with regard to it are dicta. In a Wisconsin case, the court (the Superior Court of Milwaukee) had to pass directly upon the validity or legality of a closed-shop contract which had been voluntarily concluded. It was held that the contract was void because contrary to public policy. While workmen had the right to organize and to co-operate, their purpose should be to benefit their own organizations, not to injure outsiders. The court said:

Public policy and the interests of society favor the utmost freedom in the citizen to pursue his lawful trade or calling, and if the purpose of an organization or combination of workmen be to hamper or restrict that freedom, and through contract or agreement with employers to coerce other workmen to become members of the organization and to come under its rules and conditions under the penalty of the loss of their positions and of deprivation of employment, then that purpose seems clearly unlawful and militates against the spirit of our government and the nature of our institutions.

These considerations, it is pointed out by impartial lawyers and press writers, do not really determine the issue. An interesting symposium in the monthly review of the National Civic Federation, to which many prominent attorneys contribute, shows that the logic of the anti-closed shop opinions is not deemed conclusive even by the legal community.

Here, in short, is the counter argument: It is conceded that men have the right to say on what terms they will work, and when, where or how they will work. The right to make a contract is an employee's right as well as an employer's. If the employer is at liberty to employ, or refuse to employ, whomsoever he chooses, why is the employee not at liberty to say

that he will not work for any man who employs non-union mechanics or laborers? The employee's labor is his property, and he has a right to dispose of it as he wills. Can he be compelled to work with men who are uncongenial to him? Again, has not the employer the right to agree to employ union men exclusively? Is there any difference, in principle, between contracting for labor and contracting for raw material or machinery? Is it not recognized that a manufacturer may agree to buy all his material of one firm? Why may he not agree to engage all his labor at the hands of one union? Such agreements may *tend* to monopoly, but is everything unlawful which "tends to monopoly"? Every contract is a restriction of freedom of action, and nearly every business arrangement tends to monopoly. The law distinguishes between unreasonable, oppressive monopoly and partial, limited monopoly, and not every union-shop agreement is an oppressive-monopoly agreement. Finally, where is the "injury" to the employers? What right is taken away from them? They are free to accept or to reject the union's offer of a closed shop, and they are threatened with nothing save the loss of the services of men whom they do not own or control, and who are perfectly free to strike for any reason.

These points, elaborated and amplified, are urged by the defenders of the union shop. They will be argued in the highest courts of the states in which the issue has arisen.



## National Child Labor Committee

From time to time attention has been directed in this department to the progress of the movement against child-labor in mills, stores and street occupations. Within the last five years much effort has been put forth and much has been accomplished in the way of remedial legislation. Even in the South conditions have distinctly improved in this respect. In the years 1902-1903 fifteen of the states of

the union passed specific and noteworthy anti-child-labor measures, and in seven of these the new acts represented the first steps toward the solution of the problem.

Yet the goal has not been reached by any means, and in several states the conditions are still bad enough to amount to a national disgrace. Boys of fourteen work all night in glass factories, and girls of thirteen work at night in mills and establishments of all kinds. Certain legislatures controlled by corporate interests have refused to adopt the moderate and reasonable bills

restrictive of child-labor, and more pressure than has been exerted in the past will be needed.

To accelerate progress and aid in creating a national sentiment on the subject a National Child Labor Committee was recently organized. This body will study the conditions in the several states and coöperate with the local humanitarian



THE LATE THEODOR  
HERZL  
Leader of the  
Zionist movement.

organizations of each in obtaining for it the kind of legislation which it should have. No federal legislation will be sought, the essential idea embodied in the new organization being mutual aid toward a common aim.

Among the members of the committee are distinguished judges, divines, statesmen, settlement workers, educators, philanthropists and editors. Much good is expected from this strong and representative national organization.



## To Chautauquan Readers

Beginning with this issue readers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be introduced to a new group of topics, from the edi-

torial point of view believed to distinctly belong to the class of "things worth while." A year ago we were able to announce a group of topics centering on the



THE LATE SAMUEL  
M. JONES  
"Golden Rule"  
Mayor of Tol-  
edo, Ohio.

"Racial Composition of the American People." Incidentally the European sources from which so many radical elements have come to us were touched upon; now we shall have a more detailed presentation of European conditions in a series of articles on "Social Progress in Europe," by Mr. Frederic Austin Ogg. Readers of THE CHAUTAU-

QUAN of two years ago have praised most highly the work of Mr. Ogg, who prepared them, in his timely series entitled "Saxon and Slav," to estimate and understand the struggle in the Far East now culminating. Similar service Mr. Ogg will undoubtedly render in surveying the social and industrial developments abroad, which date from the epoch-making French Revolution and which we need to understand better if we are to meet and solve the pending problems of our modern industrial society, problems not only national but international as we are all coming to realize. Mr. Ogg's titles are suggestive: Some Features of the Old Régime; The Afterglow of the Revolution; The Republican Revival; England and the Industrial Revolution; England During the Victorian Era; Recent Social Movements in the Romance Countries; Germany and the Program of Socialism; Social and Industrial Russia; The Rumbblings of Russian Discontent.

A travel series (one of the Chautauqua Reading Journeys), in Belgium, so rich

in visible records of social progress, and in Germany, upon which so much depends in European social and industrial adjustments, will localize and visualize many important phases of the chief topic under consideration. And the expression of the life of the people, which is to be found in music no less than in the literature or painting of a people, is to appear in a unique series of studies of "German Master Musicians." Such an original feature has not hitherto characterized any magazine of which we have knowledge.

A collection of "Civic Lessons from Europe," authoritative descriptions of actual accomplishments, and a number of articles by specialists, who will tell in plain English how the various sciences, such as Bacteriology, for example, have recently contributed to Social Welfare, will have their place in THE CHAUTAUQUAN's "Social Progress Year."

Of especial interest to teachers, parents and citizens will be the popular but expert survey of that which most of us vaguely comprehend as an "American system" of education. This system, if it be a system, we depend upon to Americanize everybody. Do we really know what it is, how it has developed, and how it compares with long-established European systems? Mr. Walter L. Hervey, examiner of the Board of Education of New York, will cover these points in the series "How the American Boy is Educated."

This outline of six leading features only, indicates an editorial plan for the year that promises some definite results from reading. The conduct of departments, editorial "Highways and Byways," "Survey of Civic Betterment," "Talk about Books," Current Events, Travel, Civic Progress, Chautauqua Circle and Home Study Programs and Outlines, "Bibliographies," etc., will further emphasize THE CHAUTAUQUAN's purpose of helping to systematize reading for busy people. A new typographical dress for the magazine has been secured.



## Some Features of the Old Regime

By Frederic Austin Ogg

University of Indiana. Author of "Saxon and Slav."

**I**T is a striking feature of present-day life throughout the civilized world that men know more about one another and have a larger interest in one another's affairs than at any time in the past. The barriers of race and nationality, of religion and social rank, never counted for less than they do today, though in the stress of the conflicts which are all the time being waged about us this fact is apt to be pretty generally overlooked. Strenuous and apparently unending as many of these conflicts are, one has only to refer back to earlier ages to find others of far greater intensity and destructiveness.

Not only is there a new refinement in modern methods of conflict, but there is also a very preceptible diminishing of the area of hostilities. No civilized people today rests complacently in the assumption that it is the chosen of God and all the remainder are '*oi barbaroi*, utterly alien and hopelessly inferior. Broader conceptions, wider sympathies, and more far-reaching interests prevail than were ever known to classical or medieval times, or even to the people of Europe and America a hundred years ago. This is due in part to intellectual and spiritual causes, but chiefly to

various physical agencies which the last century or more of invention has seen set to work, and which in turn go far toward creating a new world of mutual knowledge and interests and sympathies. It would be quite impossible to exaggerate the influences exerted in this direction by the newspaper, the telegraph, the telephone, the steamship, the railroad, the perfecting and cheapening of printing, and the elaboration of widespread postal services.

Perhaps it is these considerations which have led a Russian savant to declare in a recent essay that the growth of civilization consists simply in the arousing of an ever larger degree of interest of one people in another. The aphorism is pretty much of an abstraction and may not be worth much in itself, but there can be no denying that it at least suggests a point of view of very great originality and promise. A moment's thought will convince one that the enlarging of national interests and sympathies must inevitably be accompanied by decided reflex influences, and that under this process peoples of widely varied character and accomplishments will tend to be assimilated to the same social or political grade. Just as the

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This is the first of a series of nine articles on "Social Progress in Europe." The complete list in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Some Features of the Old Régime (September).  
The After-Glow of the Revolution (October).  
The Republican Revival (November).  
England and the Industrial Revolution (December).  
England During the Victorian Era (January).

Recent Social Movements in the Romance Countries (February).  
Germany and the Program of Socialism (March).  
Social and Industrial Russia (April).  
The Rumbings of Russian Discontent (May).



right-minded individual with a wide circle of friends observes various manners and adopts those here and there which appeal to him as most worthy, so whole peoples who are in touch with the great outside world appropriate desirable customs, ideas, ideals, and inventions from whatsoever source they are to be had. Oftentimes the process is a more or less unconscious one, but its results are none the less pronounced.

It is in recognition of the thoroughgoing interest of our own progressive people in the various sorts of progress being made by our European kinsmen and friends that the present series of studies has been planned. It may well be maintained that on the whole Americans cherish fewer prejudices respecting foreign peoples and are able to assume a more appreciative attitude toward them than any other great national group of men. Our newspapers and magazines are filled with foreign news and discussions of foreign affairs. Hundreds of thousands of aliens from all parts of the world land at our ports every year and settle among our people, and through the immigration problem alone we are being compelled to inquire diligently into the antecedent conditions of our newcomers, and therefore into the manner of life of a very large proportion of the population of Europe. Industrial changes, problems of capital and labor, land ownership and control, socialistic agitations, conditions of every-day life, opportunities and effects of education, the care of the criminal and dependent classes—all these things and very many more are of interest to us whether viewed in Russia, in Germany, or in England. They are interesting in themselves, and doubly so by reason of the fact that in many respects we have our own similar problems and stand in need of the practical experience of other and older peoples.

In the present series it is intended not so much to attempt a general description of European life today as rather to make

a broad survey of social progress in the leading nations during the last hundred years. The subject cannot be freed from some rather formidable difficulties, which, however, will perhaps weigh more heavily with the writer than with the reader. Aside from the impossibility of treating so broad a field at all intensively within our space limits, there are three matters which ought to be reckoned with from the first and which may therefore be briefly alluded to here.

In the first place, there is the problem of what is and what is not to be regarded as "progress." This is not so simple as it seems. The dictionary will not settle it. What some would call progress, others would consider retrogression. What seems to be progress for a year or a decade, may look quite otherwise after the lapse of a century. The term is one of those relative ones which it is dangerous to attempt to define, and we shall doubtless find it convenient to pass upon the merits of movements and measures as they come before us rather than to try to lay down a preliminary definition which would be likely to fail when most needed.

The next difficulty is that of weighing correctly the facts of recent history. Time, and a good deal of it, too, is needed to give a true perspective to events and changes. One cannot tell how the years to come will modify our present views of the men and measures of the century recently closed. Yet it is to be observed that by the lapse of time much also is lost; and this is especially true of just such portions of history as that with which we must here be dealing. Events and personalities record themselves and cannot be forgotten, but such illusory matters as social conditions, customs and manners, industrial methods and transitions, and in general the commonplace life of the people, are not so indelibly fixed in documents or literature. So while such subjects are not easy to get hold of at any time, they are sure to be-



#### SYMBOLIC REPRESENTATION OF THE REVOLUTION

From Martin's "Popular History of France."

come more intangible with every decade that intervenes between them and the man who attempts to describe them.

Finally, there is the difficulty of fixing a chronological limit to our study which shall be anything more than a division point arbitrarily selected. All history is essentially continuous, but social history is especially so. Administrations, kingships, monarchies and republics, political and military organizations, rise and fall but the life of the people goes on without interruption. Still there are some great transition periods which can be marked off without doing violence to the facts. The later Roman Empire was one of these; the age of Charlemagne was another; and perhaps the most clearly defined from our modern point of view was the era of Napoleon. The last-mentioned period was inaugurated by the French Revolution, which, as we shall see, owed much of its significance to the fact that it

comprised a partially successful attempt to sweep away the existing social and industrial order and lay bare the foundations of society to receive a wholly new structure. The Revolution, however, does not mark a new era solely because by it a great people sought to cut themselves loose from the past. "The nineteenth century," says Mr. Frederic Harrison in one of his delightful essays, "is precisely the history of the work which the French Revolution left. The Revolution was a *creating* force even more than a *destroying* one; it was an inexhaustible source of fertile influences; it not only cleared the ground of the old society, but it manifested all the elements of the new society." It is not necessary to accept Disraeli's extravagant declaration that "there are only two events in history—the siege of Troy and the French Revolution," to agree that the Revolution in its larger destructive and constructive aspects is the



STORMING OF THE BASTILLE

From "European History," by George Burton Adams, published by the Macmillan Company.

central fact of modern times. In it all the institutions and conditions of past centuries found their culmination, and in many cases their end. While from it dates a new order of things, not completely realized at once, but becoming ever better established with the progress of the nineteenth century. So that, after all, the upheaval in France is not so bad a point with which to begin a survey of recent European development.

In the ensuing series no attempt will be made to keep up a continuous narrative. The observation of Carlyle concerning narrative as a means to represent the past, that it is only a line, and must go straight on, while life stretches out in all directions, is here decidedly apropos. Our method shall be rather to select the more important phases of social agitation and advancement in the different countries, and by describing them and showing their inter-relations to make up a fairly comprehensive and coherent picture of a hundred years of popular betterment. The point of departure must be the state of things prevailing among the peoples of

continental Europe just before the great uprising at Paris in 1789.

By most historians the French Revolution is ranked with the Renaissance and the Reformation as one of the three greatest popular movements of the last thousand years. This view is eminently proper, provided only that the Revolution be looked upon as primarily a period of social and industrial changes and not a mere carnival of license, crime, and bloodshed. The horribly picturesque features of the movement—the storming of the Bastille, the "September massacres," the execution of the king, the thronging of the guillotines with luckless victims, the Paris rabble shouting the Marseillaise hymn as they paraded the streets with the heads of "aristocrats" on their pikes—sometimes succeed in obscuring from view the true character of the Revolution. The Reign of Terror, to which these belonged, was only the *sequel* to the Revolution, and not the thing itself. A show of force had perhaps become necessary by 1789 to precipitate a crisis and compel the lethargic

government to initiate long-needed reforms, but the magnitude of the violence which ensued operated in the end to obstruct rather than to promote the truly desirable objects of the movement. The real Revolution consisted not in war or massacres but in the widespread displacing of an old order of political and social arrangements by new ones. "The French people," says De Tocqueville, "made in 1789 the greatest effort which was ever attempted by any nation to cut, so to speak, their destiny in halves, and to separate by an abyss that which they had heretofore been from that which they sought to become hereafter." The great dominating purpose was to escape from the *ancien régime*.

"The Old Régime" is an expression which has come to be very generally employed to designate the whole social, industrial, and political system prevailing in Western Europe during the two centuries or more prior to the outbreak of the French Revolution. Its main features were more or less common to Germany, Italy, Spain, Austria, and France, though it may best be studied in the last-mentioned country because it was there more fully established than elsewhere, and because the materials for study are more abundant for France than for other continental countries of the time. Furthermore, the Revolution was primarily a French movement, and it was by the Revolution that the Old Régime was brought to an end.

What, then, was the Old Régime, and why was it essential that it be overthrown before the French and other European peoples could enter upon the lines of progress in which they have won so much distinction during the last hundred years?

The whole matter hinges on the social classes into which the men of the eighteenth century were divided, and their respective privileges and burdens. The most obvious fact gleaned by a survey of the continent about 1789 is that government was almost uniformly autocratic,

being supported by a privileged nobility and a wealthy established church, and imposed upon the voiceless and unprivileged masses who were expected to rest content with paying taxes, filling the armies, and rendering implicit obedience to the constituted authorities. This general system was the result of many centuries of tedious development. There were features in it which ran far back into the Middle Ages, and others which were of comparatively recent growth. By wars and treaties, by revolutions and quiet innovations, by accidents and by deep laid designs—in truth, in a more or less haphazard fashion—society gradually became crystallized as we find it toward the end of the eighteenth century. And having become thus crystallized, it tended strongly to grow so embedded in tradition and custom as to be almost changeless. Otherwise the Revolution would not have been so serious an affair.

As for France, in which for the present our interest chiefly centers, it is important



THE PRISON CALLED THE ABBAYE

A representative prison of the period. Where Madame Roland passed the first twenty-four days of her imprisonment. From Ida M. Tarbell's "Madame Roland," published by Charles Scribner's Sons.

to observe that there was no such degree of national unity as today. By a long and complicated series of conquests, purchases, inheritances, and extinctions of feudal dynasties, reaching all the way from Hugh Capet in the tenth century to the accession of Louis XVI in 1774, an

aggregation of territory had been brought under the king's sovereignty which comprised pretty nearly the limits of the present French republic. Each of the pieces of land successively added had possessed its own peculiar government, social organization, and industrial conditions.



MARIE ANTOINETTE

From J. S. C. Abbott's "The French Revolution of 1789," published by Harper & Bros.

There was usually little change in these after annexation, the king being satisfied simply to receive the taxes and military services of the people. Hence, except for financial and military administration, there was in 1789 little uniformity of government throughout the kingdom. As a single illustration of this may be cited the fact that in central, western, and northern France not fewer than two hundred and eighty-five different local codes of law were in force, so that when a person moved from his own to a neighboring town he was pretty likely to encounter a wholly unfamiliar legal system. As we shall see, the commercial and taxation systems were almost equally varied and inconvenient.

At the head of the state was the king; indeed, according to Louis XIV's famous saying, the king *was* the state. So far as the powers of the government went, this aphorism was almost literally true. For a hundred and seventy-five years prior to 1789 France had known no such thing as a national legislative assembly. While across the Channel in England the old Stuart theory of the divine right of kings was being left far behind in the ever larger supremacy of Parliament in the management of the nation's affairs, in France the king's word was law. It is true that measures were generally submitted by the king to his council of ministers, and afterwards registered in the law court known as the "Parlement" of Paris but the fact remained that a strong monarch could always dictate to both the council and the law court. The theory of absolutism was quite fully realized in practice.

Not only was the form of government thus quite out of harmony with the best modern ideas on the subject, but an even more conspicuous fault of the system was the glaring inequality of citizens. In the excesses of the Revolution French enthusiasts carried the conception of equality to the most illogical and ridiculous extremes, yet it cannot be denied that their wildest theories did not go so far wrong in the one direction as the practical facts of the existing situation prior to 1789 went in the other. To make this clear it is necessary to consider briefly the conditions of the three great social classes—the nobles, the clergy, and the common people.

In 1789 France had a population of about twenty-five millions. Of these the two privileged classes, nobles and clergy, composed about one per cent, or in numbers two hundred and fifty thousand. The proportion of the privileged to the total population may be more readily grasped by allusion to the fact that it was practically the same as that between the populations of the city of Detroit and the



north central group of states from the Dakotas on the west to Ohio on the east. The nobles and clergy were about equally divided in numbers, and the aggregate wealth of the two orders was approximately the same. Together they owned half the soil of France.

The royal power had been steadily growing for centuries and by the time of Louis XVI (1774-1793) the nobles had lost all their feudal prerogatives of government. They, however, had managed to retain their other ancient privileges, and even to add to them, so that on the whole their position was hardly less independent than had been that of their medieval ancestors. They received large feudal payments from the peasantry upon their estates, drew heavy pensions and sinecure salaries from the royal treasury, enjoyed exclusive right to command in the army and navy, were exempt from certain taxes, notably the burdensome *taille*, or land tax, were not called upon to serve in the militia or help build roads, and possessed powers to oppose and exploit the common people which alone would have made the nobility a popularly detested order. Although as has appeared from recent research the last century before the Revolution was marked by a real revival of interest in agriculture and industry on the part of the nobility, the fact still remains that most of the nobles were no longer content with being great farmers or merchants in the country towns, and were ever ready to abandon all prospect of an easy and prosperous, even though obscure, life rather than forego the luxury, gaiety, and pompous splendor of Paris.

The church in France before the Revolution was virtually a state within a state. It was established by law and most of its old prerogatives were preserved, as for example the management of education and the care of the sick and poor. Moreover it was immensely wealthy, owning from a fifth

to a fourth of all the land in France. Of the hundred and thirty thousand clergy, half were monks and nuns. Of the rest, one-sixth composed the so-called "higher clergy"—bishops and abbots who not infrequently hired subordinates to discharge their spiritual offices while they themselves lived in luxury and idleness, if not in vice, at the court. The income of the church was very great, probably more than \$100,000,000 a year, but five-sixths of it went to the bishops and abbots, while the forty thousand village priests and other lower clergy—often men of fine re-



LOUIS XVI

From Martin's "Popular History of France." religious character—were half-starved on the pitiful remainder. The church maintained the position now as in former times that it could not legitimately be called upon to pay taxes to the state, though it might occasionally yield to the king a "free gift." So the clergy, like the nobles, were exempt from most forms of taxation.

All the people who belonged to neither of the privileged classes were members

of the Third Estate. The upper grade of this great mass of commoners, generally known as the bourgeoisie, was composed of merchants, physicians, lawyers, and other business and professional men who lived chiefly in the towns. Below these were all varieties of unprivileged persons,



A FRENCH DANDY

reaching down to the most direfully poverty-stricken peasant. Long before the eighteenth century serfdom had practically died out in France, and in the period we are contemplating men were not bound to the soil as in medieval times. Theoretically at least, they were free to go where they would. In practice the situation was far otherwise, for as a rule the noble and clerical proprietors of the great estates had contrived to perpetuate numerous financial obligations and conditions of life which put the tenant under severe constraints and robbed him quite effectually of his supposed freedom. His economic status remained one of abject dependence. And even the man who tilled his own little plot of ground was more than likely to be compelled to pay one or more sorts of dues to the lord of the manor in which his land once lay.

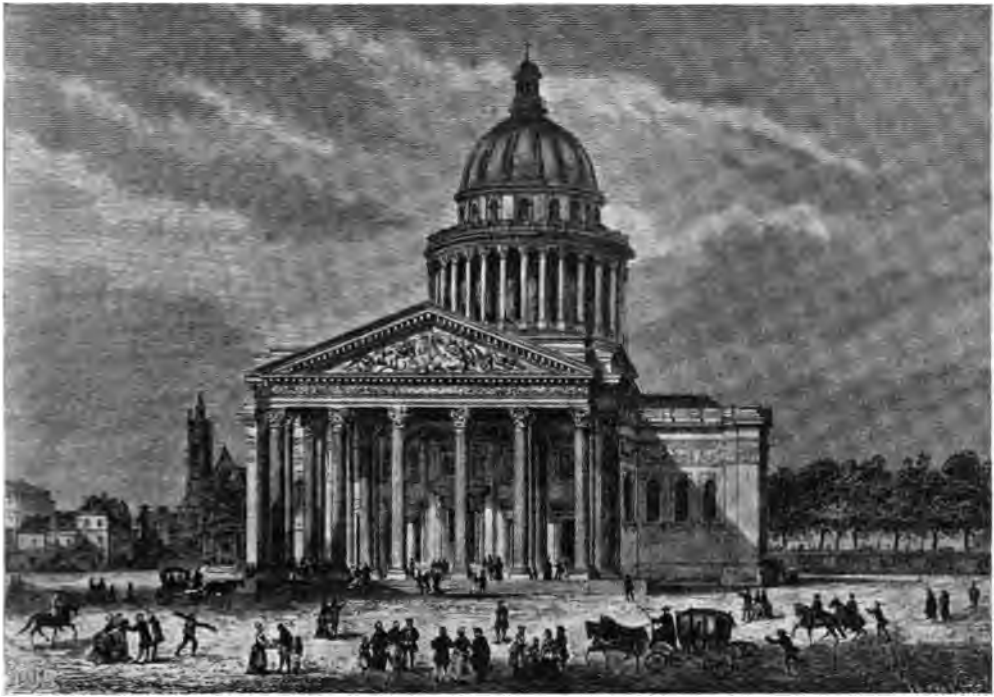
A common method of viewing the situation is to designate the nobility and clergy as drones supported by the common people, whose very life-blood they unscrupulously sapped. The figure may be a little extreme, but on the whole it is not a bad one. More than a hundred years before the outbreak of the Revolution a French gentleman wrote: "Certain wild-looking beings, male and female, are scattered over the country—black-livid, sunken, and haggard, who, by the use of the soil, which they dig

and grub with invincible stubbornness. They seem just capable of speech, and when they stand erect, they display the lineaments of men. They *are* men. At night they retire to their dens where they devour black bread with roots and water. They spare other human beings the trouble of sowing, plowing, and reaping, and thus should not themselves lack bread."

If such were the conditions about 1690, a hundred years of extravagance on the part of the nobles and clergy and ill-requited labor on part of the people had brought things to a much sorrier pass by 1789. In the years 1787-1789 Arthur Young, an enterprising English student of social problems, traveled extensively through France and wrote an account of his observations which has taken rank among the world's most valuable literature of the kind. From Young's "Travels" it is possible to glean a multitude of facts regarding conditions in France on the eve of the Revolution, and especially concerning the unhappy state of the peasantry.

It is not surprising to learn that by all odds the greatest of the peasant's troubles was the unjust share of taxation which fell upon him. As we have seen, the nobles and clergy were largely exempt from taxation; and not only that, but by their pensions, sinecure salaries, and general extravagance, they absorbed for their own use a very large portion of the tax-money paid under the greatest difficulty by the peasantry. As Arthur Young says, it was a cruel aggravation of the misery of the poor to see those who could best afford to pay exempted *because* they were able; but it was still more exasperating to observe that the wealth and position of the privileged depended mainly on the diversion of the tax receipts from worthy national enterprises to the purses of private individuals who rendered absolutely no return.

Of direct taxes the most burdensome were the *taille* and the *corvée*. The *taille*



THE CHURCH OF ST. GENEVIEVE

A representative church of the period. From Guizot's "History of France," published by Sampson Low & Co.

was originally a tax on the peasants' land, but by 1789 it had come to consist in an arbitrary seizure of any part of his visible income. Each year the government apportioned to each district the amount it must pay, and with every sign of additional prosperity on the part of the inhabitants the levy was increased. For example, a royal inspector wrote on one occasion, "The people of this village are stouter, and there are chicken feathers before the doors; the taxes here should be greatly increased next year." And so they were. The method of collecting the *taille* made it doubly obnoxious. A collector, known as an *intendant*, was appointed for each district and he was left at entire liberty to assess the tax upon the individual inhabitants as he chose. Hence a regular feature of the system came to be the exemption of the collector's friends, or those who bribed him, and the utter ruining of those who fell under the petty autocrat's displeasure. "Instances, and

even gross ones," says Arthur Young, "have been reported to me in many parts of the kingdom that made me shudder at the oppression to which numbers must have been condemned by the undue favors granted to such crooked influence." Here, too, signs of prosperity were but invitations for heavier levies, so that the peasants often concealed such wealth as they had and neglected to repair their houses lest by doing so they be subjected to heavier burdens.

The *corvée* was forced labor on roads, canals, and other public works. The worst feature of it was that a peasant might be called out for service at any time by arbitrary order, and while thus giving his time the little crop upon which he must depend for months for subsistence might be utterly lost. Of course the nobles and clergy paid neither *taille* nor *corvée*, so that the burden rested exclusively on the bourgeoisie and the peasantry, while even the bourgeoisie by more



or less corrupt means generally managed to escape. It has been estimated that the average peasant paid over half of his yearly income to the government in direct taxes.

Then there were also indirect taxes, which if less in amount, were even more

son, in his recent "History of Western Europe," gives these examples: "At Dijon a certain amount of salt cost seven francs; a few miles to the east, on entering Franche Comté, one had to pay, for the same amount, twenty-five francs; to the north in Burgundy, fifty-eight francs;

while still further off, in Gex, there was no tax whatever." The second evil connected with the salt tax was the method of its collection, i. e., by collectors to whom the tax was "farmed." They paid the government the sum it wished to realize from the sale of salt, and then proceeded to collect it and as much more as possible from their district. It is said that not more than a fifth of the sum collected



SESSION OF REVOLUTIONARY COMMITTEE

vexatious in character. These were chiefly taxes on the sale of certain articles of merchandise, and tolls and tariffs on goods imported or carried from one district to another. Nothing so well illustrates the viciousness of the French fiscal system under the old régime as the levy of the salt tax, or *gabelle*. No salt could be bought except from government agents, and the law enjoined that every household purchase from these agents at least seven pounds a year for each member over seven years of age. This was for the supply of the table only. If, aside from this, a pig was killed and the flesh was to be salted there must be a separate purchase, accompanied by an officer's certificate. Of course the government fixed the rates at which consumers were to pay for the salt. Not only were these exorbitant but there were two additional evils. The first of these was the fact that the price varied considerably in different parts of the country. Professor Robin-

son ever reached the treasury. Under this system the people were abandoned by the state to the unrestrained exploitation of its greedy agents.

The extreme penal code directed against the smuggling of salt further illustrates the character of the times. Obviously there was much profit in smuggling salt out of provinces where it sold cheap into those where it commanded an extortionate price. To prevent this the government issued the most stringent regulations. Here are two of them. "Smugglers of salt, armed and assembled to the number of five, in Provence, a fine of 500 livres and nine years in the galleys; in all the rest of the kingdom, death." "Smugglers who carry the salt on their backs, and without arms, a fine of 200 livres, and, if not paid, branding and flogging. Second offence, a fine of 300 livres and six years in the galleys." It has been estimated that on the average 2,340 men, 869 women, and 201 children

were imprisoned or sent to the galleys annually as salt smugglers.

There were other indirect taxes which bore with no less severity upon the classes of men least able to pay them. Commerce was everywhere fettered with tolls and tariffs, with the effect of greatly increasing the cost of the commonest articles of usage. The bourgeois trader paid heavily for the privilege of transporting goods across the frontiers and from one province to another, but by charging the peasants heavily for the sheer necessities of life he usually succeeded in making large profits and amassing considerable wealth. The tariff system was actually so far-reaching that a workingman who crossed a river from his home in one district to his day's work in another was compelled to make a payment on the luncheon which he carried in his pocket.

Taxation, extortionate and unjust, was then the first great evil from which the French peasantry was suffering in the era preceding the Revolution. The second was a large group of feudal burdens which had no excuse for existence other than mere custom and tradition. The feudal system of social organization became fully established in France about the tenth and eleventh centuries and continued to give form to society until its decline before the growing power of kingship and the general tendency toward centralization in the thirteenth century and after. The essence of that system was a contractual arrangement whereby the feudal lord on the one hand received the military and financial assistance of his dependents or vassals, and these vassals on the other were brought under the im-

mediate protection of the lord. In the lawless, chaotic, and turbulent Middle Ages such a reciprocal bond was more than likely to prove of the greatest value to all parties concerned. But with the passing centuries conditions changed. Gradually the feudal lords were brought into subjection to the kings and the central authority in the state asserted its rightful supremacy over the powers that were merely local. The lords were obliged to stop their endless rivalries and conflicts and give the military strength which they had formerly used in their own behalf to the service of the king. A great national army took the place of many smaller feudal hosts.

The lords, however, continued in possession of their lands, which were often very extensive and peopled by thousands of men who had been serfs and inferior vassals. These were now elevated in theory to the rank of free tenants, but as



MARRIAGE UNDER THE REPUBLIC

has been suggested before, this did not often mean any very great change in their actual condition. The reason for this was that the state was comparatively weak and the king was glad enough to get the taxes and military service of the whole people without assuming to go very far in regulating their manner of

life. Loyalty to the crown covered a multitude of sins in the average noble, so that he was usually left with a pretty free hand for the management of all his relations with his neighbors and especially his tenants.

Military service could no longer be exacted; but now that the noble was no longer a sovereign this did not greatly matter. He did not need soldiers as his tenth or twelfth century ancestor had needed them. But there were things which he did need, and happily for him there were, in the period before the Revolution, as a rule no restrictions upon his getting them if he could.

The many sorts of ways in which an eighteenth century nobleman in France had it in his power to derive profit from the labor and services of the poor men who lived as tenants upon his estates can hardly even be mentioned here, much less described. For a well-rounded discussion of them one should read Taine's entertaining chapters in his "Ancient Régime," or De Tocqueville's in his "State of Society in France before the Revolution of 1789," or Lowell's in his "Eve of the French Revolution." From the start it should be borne in mind that an overwhelming proportion of the peasants were more or less subject to feudal obligations. For although perhaps a fourth of the soil of France in 1789 belonged to the peasantry, the individual holdings were generally so small that they could not support a family independently. In such cases there was nothing left for the head of the household to do but spend part of his time at labor on the land of a neighboring lord. And many more than half of the peasants lived altogether by cultivating soil whose title was vested in some great proprietor.

The feudal burdens which fell upon this whole mass of more or less dependent tenants were about as diverse as could well be imagined. Sometimes they were very heavy; as, for example, the giving of two or more days' work out of each week to the lord. Sometimes they were petty

and insignificant, as the giving of a pair of chickens or a young pig to the lord each year. But besides these stated gifts there were many indirect restrictions upon the peasant's independence. He could not sell his land without rendering to the lord a portion of the money received. He could not sell produce except in the lord's market, and then only when the lord had had first opportunity to make sales and receive the highest prices. The pittance of grain which he was able to keep for the subsistence of his family must be ground at the lord's mill, and a sixteenth of the flour must be given as toll. He was allowed to bake bread only in the lord's oven, and for this a toll must also be paid. He must make his wine at the lord's press, and of course give a share of it for the privilege.

More obnoxious still were the exclusive rights of hunting enjoyed by the nobles. Wild animals were protected by a system of game laws such as had been cast aside in England in the interests of the country people as much as four centuries before. Whole droves of wild boars and herds of deer were allowed to wander at will over the entire country and the wretched peasants who presumed to defend their crops were sent to the galleys. "The peasant must not under any circumstances injure the rabbits or pigeons or deer that devoured his crop; but the nobles at will might ride over the crops to chase the game." There were numerous edicts which prohibited weeding and hoeing lest the young partridges be disturbed; steeping seed lest after it be planted the birds should eat it and be injured; taking away the stubble from meadows which would deprive the small game of shelter. The peasant was not allowed to own a gun, or to keep a dog unless he kept it at all times securely chained; and when he was able to secure a permit to fence his land he must leave large open spaces for the huntsmen's horses to pass through.

These were but a few of the most common feudal burdens imposed upon the



## VERSAILLES

From "European History," by George Burton  
Adams, published by the Macmillan Co.

peasantry. While we are not to suppose that any considerable number of people suffered from them all at the same time, there can be no doubt of their general prevalence and vicious influence. "In passing through many of the French provinces," says Arthur Young, "I was struck with the various and heavy complaints of the farmers and little proprietors of the feudal grievances with the weight of which their industry was burdened; but I could not then conceive the multiplicity of the shackles which kept them poor and depressed. I understood it better afterwards from the conversation and complaints of some grand seigneurs, as the Revolution advanced; and I then learned that the principal rental of many estates consisted of services and feudal tenures by the baneful influences of which the industry of the people was almost exterminated."

All in all, there is nowhere a better summary of the whole situation from the common man's point of view than that of De Tocqueville; and since the great Frenchman's book is not very generally accessible to readers it may be well worth while to quote a choice passage.

"Picture to yourself," he says, "a French peasant of the eighteenth century,

so enamored of the soil that he will spend all his savings to purchase it, and to purchase it at any price. To complete this purchase he must first pay a tax, not to the government but to other landowners of the neighborhood, as unconnected as himself with the administration of public affairs and hardly more influential than he is. He possesses it at last; his heart is buried in it with the seed he sows. This little nook of ground, which is his own in this vast universe, fills him with pride and independence. But again these neighbors call him from the furrow, and compel him to come to work for them without wages. He tries to defend his young crop from their game; again they prevent him. As he crosses the river they wait for his passage to levy a toll. He finds them at the market, where they sell him the right of selling his own produce; and when, on his return home, he wants to use the remainder of his wheat for his own subsistence, he cannot touch it till he has ground it at the mill and baked it at the bakehouse of these same men. A portion of the income of his little property is paid away in quitrents to them also, and these dues can neither be extinguished nor redeemed. Whatever he does, these troublesome neighbors are everywhere on his path to disturb his happiness, to interfere with his labor, to consume his profits; and when these are dismissed, others in the black garb of the church present themselves to carry off the clearest profit of the harvest. Picture to your-

self the condition, the wants, the character, the passion of this man, and compute, if you are able, the stores of hatred and envy which are accumulated in his heart."

Even a little study into the social conditions thus briefly outlined must lead one to agree with Arthur Young that, while it is impossible to justify the excesses of the people after they had taken up arms, there was abundant reason for revolt. Government was the extreme of autocracy, in effect quite as absolute as that of Russia today. There was no practical way in which the ordinary man could influence the policies and measures of the state whose rule over him was so exacting. Two numerically insignificant classes of men enjoyed enormous privileges, mainly at the direct expense of the great mass of citizens. These privileges were fully hereditary and tended always to increase rather than to be diminished. The common man rarely owned his own home, or possessed land on which he could make a living for himself and his family. He was weighed down with taxes which the wealthy nobles and clergy were not asked to pay. He was hedged about with vexatious restrictions which were intended solely for the benefit of the already too highly privileged classes. He was still held responsible for his share of the old traditional feudal contract, *i. e.*, services of various sorts to the lord, while the reciprocal obligation of the lord, namely, protection from violence and extortion, had long since been completely extinguished. Despite all these things, there were not a few peasants in parts of France in 1789 who were happy and contented, and even in some degree prosperous. But the large majority were very far from being so; and as conditions were generally going from bad to worse, it is little to be wondered at that when active leadership and a renewed public spirit were forthcoming the explosion should not have been long delayed. Quoting Arthur Young again, "the true judgment

to be formed of the French Revolution must surely be gained from an attentive consideration of the evils of the old government. When these are well understood, and when the extent and universality of the oppression under which the people groaned—oppression which bore upon them from every quarter—it will scarcely be attempted to be urged that a revolution was not absolutely necessary to the welfare of the kingdom."

At all events the Revolution came, and when it had run its course we find conditions presenting a decidedly different aspect. In the next study it will be our purpose to take a survey of the society of Western Europe, especially France, during the first quarter of the nineteenth century and to observe the character and extent of the changes wrought by the great revolutionary movement.

#### TOPICAL ANALYSIS

##### General introduction.

- (a) The enlarging of men's mutual interests.
- (b) Purposes of the present studies.
- (c) Difficulties to be reckoned with.
  1. Various conceptions of "progress."
  2. Lack of perspective.
  3. Chronological limitations.
- I. True character of the French Revolution.
  1. The Reign of Terror not an essential feature of it.
  2. A struggle to escape from the Old Régime.
- II. The state of France prior to 1789.
  1. Lack of national unity.
  2. Absolute monarchy.
  3. Classes of people.
    - (a) The nobles—their numbers, character, and privileges.
    - (b) The clergy—their numbers, wealth, and privileges.
    - (c) The Third Estate—bourgeoisie and peasantry.
- III. The condition of the common people in France before the Revolution.
  1. Burdened by taxes.
    - (a) The *taille*.
    - (b) The *corvée*.
    - (c) Indirect taxes, especially the *gabelle*.
    - (d) Tariffs and tolls.
  2. Feudal obligations.
    - (a) Origin and development.
    - (b) Survival of the economic dominance of the lords.
    - (c) Obnoxious restrictions upon peasant life.
- IV. Hopelessness of the situation in 1789; revolution inevitable.



## REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How does the social spirit of the twentieth century compare with that of earlier times? 2. What causes have brought about this change? 3. Show how nations are influenced by each other's customs and ideas. 4. Why are Americans peculiarly interested in the affairs of other nations? 5. Why is it difficult to discuss intelligibly the question of social progress in Europe? 6. What does Mr. Frederic Harrison say of the Revolution as a creative force? 7. In what way must we look upon the French Revolution in order to understand its true purpose? 8. What do we mean by the expression "The Old Régime"? 9. What class distinctions existed under this system? 10. Show why the local systems of government in France differed so widely at this time. 11. How did the power of the king in France compare with that in England at this time? 12. What proportion did the privileged class bear to the whole population? 13. Show how the nobles and clergy had privileges out of proportion to their numbers. 14. What effect had this upon the nobility in general? 15. Describe the situation of the church and clergy. 16. Who formed the Third Estate? 17. What picture of the peasants at this time is given by a French writer? 18. Who was Arthur Young? 19. Why was the wealth of the unprivileged peculiarly exasperating to the peasants? 20. Why had the peasants no inducement to improve their own condition? 21. How did the *corvée* often work great harm to the peasantry? 22. What proportion of the peasant's income was paid in direct taxes? 23. Describe the iniquitous salt tax. 24. How were the peasants opposed by their feudal lords?

## SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Why should a violent revolution have been inevitable in France in 1789 and not so in other European countries? 2. Who were the rulers in England, Russia, Spain, Italy, Austria and Germany when the French Revolution broke out? 3. Who wrote the *Marseillaise* and under what circumstances? 4. Who is the patron saint of Paris? 5. What are the arms of Paris?

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

The literature of the French Revolution is quite voluminous, and the books containing

good discussions of the social conditions out of which the Revolution grew are likewise numerous. Only a few of the best can here be mentioned. The one great original authority which is easily accessible is Arthur Young's "Travels in France in 1787-1789" (The Macmillan Company, \$1.00), which will be found in some form in almost any library. If one can read liberally in this book most of the later works on the subject can be neglected without great sacrifice. Excellent and abundant reading will be found in H. A. Taine's "Ancient Régime"; Alexis de Tocqueville's "The State of Society in France before the Revolution of 1789 and the Causes which led to that Event" (London, John Murray, 1888); R. H. Dabney's "The Causes of the French Revolution"; G. Lowes Dickinson's "Revolution and Reaction in Modern France" (London, George Allen, 1892); H. Morse Stephens's "History of the French Revolution"; Vol. I, Lowell's "The Eve of the French Revolution"; Paul Lacombe's "The Growth of a People"; and Heinrich von Sybel's "History of the French Revolution" (Trans. by W. C. Perry, London, John Murray, 1867), Vol. I. For shorter but equally accurate accounts one will do well to consult George L. Robinson's "History of Western Europe" (Ginn), Chap. XXXIV; Willis M. West's "Modern History" (Allyn and Bacon), Part III., Chaps. I and II; H. P. Judson's "Europe in the XIXth Century" (Scribners), Chap. I; and George B. Adams's "The Growth of the French Nation." Several brief manuals on the French Revolution contain introductory chapters of much value to the general reader. The best of these are: John H. Rose's "The Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era, 1789-1815" (Cambridge Historical Series, Cambridge Univ. Press, 1894), Chap. I; Charles E. Mallet's "The French Revolution" (University Extension Manuals, London, John Murray, 1893), Chaps. I and II; E. Belfort Bax's "The Story of the French Revolution" (Social Science Series, London, Swan Sonnenschein & Co., 1890), Chap. II; John E. Symes's "The French Revolution, 1789-1795" (University Extension Series, London, Methuen & Co., 1892), Chap. I; Mrs. Bertha M. Gardiner's "The French Revolution, 1789-1795" (Epochs of Modern History, London, Longmans, Green & Co., 1890), Chap. I; and William O'Connor Morris's "The French Revolution and First Empire" (Epochs of History, New York, Scribners, 1874), Chap. I. Of these six books, Rose is fullest and best for our purposes.





## The Belgium of Charles the Bold and Philip II

By Clare de Graffenried

**T**HE lamented Leo XIII lived five years in Belgium as papal nuncio and felt that he had lived five years "in paradise." Nowhere are there more opportunities for culture and delight, nowhere more life, energy and unexampled industry, nowhere greater wealth of historic antiquities. Before printing was invented or America discovered the little land was a power in war, politics, commerce and art, its cathedrals already hoary, its fortresses and ramparts the scene of constant battles for freedom, its markets and products sought by all nations. Two thousand years ago these same Belgians were Cæsar's resourceful enemies, to be reckoned with in all his plans for conquest of their neighbor Gaul.

Roman supremacy over this region was broken in the fifth century by the Salic-Franks. In the ninth century the district became part of Charlemagne's empire, and feudal subjection to his successors was in time thrown off for mere nominal dependence on France and Germany—the two ethnic sources whence spring the two

distinct Belgian races of today. The Gallic type with Spanish admixture survives in the dark and vivacious Walloons, while Teutonic traits prevail in the light-haired, tenacious, commercial Flemings.

By their courageous spirit these fiery vassals of ruthless war-lords evolved strong states and fiefdoms, Flanders, Hainault, Namur, the duchies of Brabant and Limburg, the bishopric of Liège, the county of Antwerp, the lordship of Mechlin, whose boundaries may be traced in the present Belgian provinces. Aided by a network of waterways and canals, free cities existed here even before the Hanseatic League. Flanders was half independent already under its elective counts; and the Walloon district between France and Germany, soon attained commercial and political importance.

To the civic ambition, the insistent democratic ideals of the burghers and merchants of that epoch we owe the picturesque architecture by which the history of Belgium may be sketched.

Every class of building stands for a

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This is the first of a series of nine articles entitled "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany." The complete list in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

The Belgium of Charles the Bold and Philip II, by Clare de Graffenried (September).  
Belgium in the Twentieth Century, by Clare de Graffenried (October).  
Hanover, Hildesheim and Brunswick, by Clara M. Stearns (November).  
What Berlin Offers, by Professor Otto Heller (December).

Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck, by Wolf von Schierbrand (January).  
Munich: the City on the Isar, by N. Hudson Moore (February).  
Weimar, by Prof. Robert W. Deering March. University Life (April).  
Town and Country Byways, by Clara M. Stearns (May).

florescence of national life and means more than a mere architectural style. Each type crystallizes the habits of living, the struggles and achievements that mark off one century from its successor. Walls, towers and castles signify twelfth century feudalism. Guilds, belfrys and market halls betoken industrialism and democratic principles, of which the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries and the two van Artevelde are exponents. Town halls, law courts and palaces suggest commerce and militarism triumphant, embodied in the Burgundians of the fifteenth century. Renaissance forms, heavy, gloomy, splendid, tasteless, spell ecclesiasticism and the Spanish rule of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

Coincident with all the foregoing are

the earliest crypts, monastic settlements, miracle-working shrines and those wider religious centers, the churches. Fine and interesting examples of every period have been preserved with reverent care: crypts and basilicas, Romanesque and later Norman; chapels with the simple slightly-pointed arches of transition Gothic; churches in the noble pure Gothic of the fourteenth and fifteenth, the debased Gothic of the sixteenth century, ending in the classic renaissance and unworthy rococo. These great cathedrals were the core of man's spiritual being, his house of christening and marriage, his house of refuge, joy and mourning, his tomb and monument.

All the Belgian cities have a distinct and ancient past. The King of France ac-



SKETCH MAP OF BELGIUM





HALL OF THE BUTCHERS' GUILD, GHENT

knowledgeable Baldwin Iron-Arm Count of Flanders in 862. Eight Baldwins had ruled by 1119 before their line died out. The title was henceforth held by foreign princes elected by the Flemish people; thus did Theodoric of Alsace become Count of Flanders in 1128 against the will of France. The ninth Baldwin, crusader and founder of the Latin empire, left two daughters from whose weak hands the towns of Flanders and Hainault wrested important privileges. Margaret's son Guy was ruled by Philip IV of France, whose dictation the burghers of Ghent and Bruges threw off in 1302 at the famous Battle of the Spurs

Bruges had already become a great mart of the Hanseatic League, the sole port by which English wool entered. Her riches and commerce surprised Philip le Bel of France and his wife, Joanna of Navarre, when visiting Bruges in 1304. Struck by the fine apparel of the women, the queen acknowledged them rival in dress, decked as they were with

the products of Venice and India, with laces and jewels equal to her own.

Ghent had power enough in 1297 to defeat Edward I of England. Fifty-three separate trade-guilds flourished, and the weavers alone, 40,000 strong, could furnish 16,000 fighting men. The city was ever turbulent—"those hard heads of Flanders," Charles V called them. Under Jacques van Artevelde they rebelled against their count, Louis I, in 1322. Van Artevelde though of noble family enrolled in the brewer's guild and by his influence with the industrial classes was appointed protector of Flanders, supporting Edward III while Louis sided with France. Daring to propose the English Black Prince, as Count of Flanders, van Artevelde was slain. His son Philip became dictator, was besieged in Ghent by Louis III of Flanders and was defeated and slain at Roosebeke with 20,000 other Flemings.

Louis III died in 1385 without a son, His daughter, Margaret, however,



OLD BRIDGE, TOURNAI  
Part of fortifications.

married the Duke of Burgundy, Philip the Bold. Thus was independent Flanders brought under Burgundian rule; and the dukes were indebted for their prestige in the fifteenth century to the enterprise and bravery of their Flemish and Walloon subjects.

Philip the Bold was succeeded in 1404 by John the Fearless, murdered by the Dauphin, afterwards Charles VII of France, in 1419. With Philip the Good began the Augustan age of Flanders. Brabant came to him also by inheritance, and Philip made his "Joyous Entry"—contract with clergy, nobility and people—at Brussels, a scene that artists love to paint. Philip was not too good to imprison a Holland princess or harry Liège and Dinant, his son Charles accompanying him on these barbarous missions,—Charles who even then dreamed of recreating the old Burgundian kingdom by annexing Lorraine and conquering the Swiss Republic. Philip the Good taxed his subjects without mercy; and when they resisted at Gavère in 1453, he compelled the Ghenters to march out of their

walls in halts and kiss his feet. His death in 1467 made Charles the Bold Duke of Burgundy.

We know Charles by Memling's portrait of him in the Brussels gallery. Charles raised the glory of his house to the highest point only to destroy it. His decade was short, throbbing, splendid, tragic, ending in defeat by the Swiss at Granson and Morat, and his death at Lorraine's capital, Nancy, in 1477. When Charles perished on the battlefield, his body unrecognized, his treasure captured, his great diamond, now blazing among Vienna's crown jewels, found by a soldier and sold for a franc, more than a man passed out. A dynasty fell, a new line began.

Charles's young daughter, Mary, heiress to the vast estates, married a Hapsburg, Maximilian of Austria, and brought her domains under the control of that foreign and powerful house. Mary was killed at the age of twenty-five by a fall from her horse while hawking at Bruges, and her infant son, Philip, in 1482 succeeded to the throne of Burgundy.



RUINS OF THE ABBEY OF ST. BAVON, GHENT  
Chapel of St. Macaire.



ABBAY AT VILLERS



CATHEDRAL, TOURNAI



PALACE OF JUSTICE, LIEGE

Dying at the age of twenty-four, Philip the Fair would play small part in Belgian annals except for his important marriage to Joanna, daughter and successor of Ferdinand and Isabella. The son of this union, Charles V, inherited Castile and Aragon; and thus the free and liberty-loving Netherlands passed under the crushing yoke of Spain.

Let us pause ere the exit of the Burgundians to consider the growth of art in their Belgian provinces. The great cathedrals built after French Gothic models, lower but broader, invoked the sculptor and painter for adornment. Patriotic pride demanded for the town halls and guilds fretted and groined roofs, magnificent chimneys, screens of iron and bronze, armored bearings, gleaming marbles, pictures of battles and triumphs. The gay and splendor-loving Burgundians employed gold- and silversmiths and drew to their court the early painters, of whom those in Cologne and Maastricht were celebrated.

Hubert and Jan van Eyck were born at Maastricht and in 1420 joined a guild of painters at Ghent. Using oils as no other painter had ever done, Hubert's new style was received with enthusiasm in Italy. Hubert died before completing his one authentic work, the "Adoration of the Lamb," but Jan finished it. Jan then settled at Maastricht in 1432, producing masterpieces very prince in Europe.

At Tournai painting had early disciples and Rogier van der Weyden left there to found a school at Brussels about 1426. Hans Memling was his pupil, the great light of Bruges, lyric poet of the brush, who produced the most beautiful legend painting known to medi-



TOWN HALL, BRUSSELS

eval art. Other masters, Gerard David of Bruges,—lately restored to fame,—de Crayer, Dierick Bouts of Louvain and Lucas van Leyden lead up to the Louvain blacksmith, Quentin Matsys. He wrought the famous well in the glove market in front of Antwerp Cathedral and for love of an artist's daughter exchanged

the anvil for the palette and became a famous painter.

Just 400 years ago the last of the dukes of Burgundy, Philip the Fair and his wife, Joanna of Spain, lived among their Netherland subjects. So distant a period, yet practically every

realms by way of Luxembourg, rich in Roman antiquities, and would find himself in Belgium's playground, the mountains and forests of Ardennes. Here in the ninth century castle of Franchimont lived the "wild boar of Ardennes," fierce William de la Marck, immortalized in "Quentin Durward."

From Franchimont town in 1468 marched the 600 to help Liège against Charles the Bold and his life-long enemy, crafty Louis XI, who were besieging it; and the whole band perished to a man.

Picturesque Namur was the ancient capital of the Aduatici who, as Cæsar records, "took refuge in one town admirably fortified by nature," and a citadel it remains today with its eleventh century belfry for alarm and its venerable monastery of St. Albinus converted into a hall of justice. Nearly two centuries after our visit with young Philip, William III of England and Holland took this stronghold of the counts of Namur, and Stern's "Uncle Toby" there received his famous wound.

Down the Meuse goes our Burgundian, saluted from the proud towers of Poilvache and Crève-Cœur to Montaigle cas-

tle, the finest ruin in Belgium. On to the bold fortifications of Dinant where Philip the Good caused 800 townspeople to be drowned before his eyes, and Charles the Bold, avenging a fancied insult to his mother's honor—for Charles was reverent of women's honor—pillaged and burned and razed the walls. The Fair



TOWN HALL, LOUVAIN

great medieval building of Belgium which we of the twentieth century admire was then in place as it stands today.

Let us make a tour with Philip the Fair in 1504 over his Walloon and Flemish territory. The young monarch returning from Paris, where Burgundy owed fealty to the French king, would enter his



BELFRY OF TOURNAI



CATHEDRAL OF ST. ROMBOLD, MECHLIN

Philip being a good Catholic would kneel at the sixth century altar of St. Perpetuo in the church of Our Lady at Dinant, before seeking hospitality at Beauraing, once Egmont's castle, or visiting St. Hubert's miraculous shrine of the seventh century, where the unconverted huntsman saw on a Good Friday a golden crucifix between the antlers of a stag.

The Bishop of Liège, one of a line of temporal sovereigns since the tenth century, would meet his Burgundian lord and ally—perhaps that Bishop de la Marck who built the palace now a court of justice—and conduct his guest to the upper town whose privileges, granted by Charlemagne, were held by the Liègeois even against the prelates themselves, and defended with weapons they manufactured then as now. Metal workers the Walloons have ever been. In the interesting basilica of St. Barthélemy which preserves its twelfth century form, is the baptismal font cast in 1112 by Lambert Patras of Dinant when brass founding was in its infancy and Dinant was already known for its artistic copper products. This great brass bowl rests on twelve sculptured oxen, and is adorned with reliefs of the Apostles. The festival of Corpus Christi was first celebrated at St. Martin's and afterwards proclaimed throughout Christendom by Pope Urban IV, canon at Liège when Abbess Juliana had her vision. The fine Romanesque church of *Ste. Croix* was consecrated in 979, St. Denis eight years later and St. Jacques in 1014, as the tomb of Bishop Balderic attests, though the florid Gothic nave post-dates the Burgundian era.

A pious pilgrimage down the picturesque Vesdre River brings Philip to Aix, the tomb of Charlemagne; and he would skirt Limburg, ancient ducal seat of the ancestors of many German emperors. Or, diverging toward Ligny and Wavre where Blucher fought on the eve of Waterloo, the Burgundian rests with

Cistercian monks in their beautiful abbey of Villers; dines in the refectory built, like the old brewery, in the transition period from Romanesque to Gothic; and kneels in the exquisite early Gothic church, now a noted ruin.

Crossing the Roman road called by the peasants *route de Brunhilde*, Philip would reach Warrenne, old capital of Hesbaye, feared of men for the proverb, "who enters Hesbaye must fight tomorrow."

Leaving busy, choleric Walloon, he would enter Brabant, its people devout and more artistic. Zigzagging to Leau, an ancient fortress, he would find the Gothic church of St. Leonhard whose carved altars glow with early Flemish paintings, while a later stone tabernacle is among the finest of its kind. Thence to Landen, birthplace of Charlemagne's ancestor Pepin, whose daughter Gertrude founded the convent at Nivelles. Traversing Neerwinden plain, scene of two great battles, our prince would pass by once rich Tirlemont to its rival, Louvain.

Louvain was the weavers' bulwark of freedom even before they defied Duke Wencelaus and built their marvelous town hall, a dream of decorated Gothic, erected in 1448-63 by the architect de Layens. St. Pierre, too, had been rebuilt in 1430, and its flamboyant rood-loft and fine canopy added. In the armorer's chapel a much venerated blackened image of Christ is believed to have caught a thief who profaned the church by his presence. Over the altars hung Dierick Bouts' "Last Supper" and "Justice of Otho" as well as Quentin Matsys' "Family of St. Anne"—a masterpiece now in the Brussels gallery. The great university, founded in 1426 and always of rigid orthodoxy, would greet its friendly patron with thousands of students.

Mechlin (Malines) was the home of Philip's sister Margaret who wrote her own epitaph in joking allusion to two betrothals: "*La gente demoiselle qu' eut*



CATHEDRAL, AIX-LA-CHAPELLE



TOWN HALL, MONS



*deux maris et mourut pucelle.*" Margaret governed the Netherlands during the minority of Philip's son, Charles V, and her memory is cherished by the Brabanters. St. Rombold with its huge unfinished tower and its clock forty-nine feet in diameter was paid for by the money the primate got for indulgences, and Mechlin prospered selling lace and illusions, though its townspeople were un-

century hermitage on a marshy island into a great city, Flemish at heart, French in speech because French knights frequented it. Their language became so prevalent that it has continued to be the tongue of fashion and learning and of the national laws. Then as now the Grand Place was the finest square in Europe. For nearly five centuries had the cathedral held the body of that

saintly maiden, Gudula, niece of Gertrude of Pepin's house. Early piety led Gudula daily before dawn to a distant church, a lantern showing her the way. The arch-fiend always put out the lantern, but Gudula miraculously relighted it. Her present stately shrine dates from 1220, and its pure Gothic beauty is best seen without the later side chapels. To one of these attaches melancholy significance, for it contains the sixteen sacred hosts, said to have been stolen by Jews, which bled as they were transfixed to the synagogue walls. Hence many Jews were burned and all were banished.

Following in Brussels the route of Godfrey de Bouillon as he preached the first crusade in 1097, Philip would kneel in Our Lady of Victories—the Sablon—commemorating the battle of Warringen in 1228, and



CATHEDRAL OF ST. GUDULE, BRUSSELS

justly dubbed "fools" because they mistook the moon shining through their tower for a fire and tried to put it out.

Gayer Brussels draws Duke Philip, his capital grown from St. Géry's sixth

would show himself to the people in the Grand Place from a window of the town hall. This Gothic treasure is one of the noblest buildings in the world. Its irregularity is a charm, its best and oldest wing



CLOTH HALL, NOW TOWN HALL AND CHOIR OF ST. MARTINS, YPRES, BELGIUM

the longest, thus throwing the beautiful tower a little to one side. Above the slender spire, already 370 feet high, rose the gilded St. Michael we see today, patron of Brussels and aristocrats, as St. Nicholas—our Santa Claus—is patron of the common people.

Through the Hal gate of the fortifications of 1381, Alva's Bastille later on, our Burgundian would depart, visiting on the road the little Gothic gem of a church at Hal where the wonder-working madonna caught and deflected thirty-three cannon balls during a siege. Nor would Philip omit the oldest existing building in the kingdom, the abbey church of St. Vincent, Romanesque in style, founded in 650. Thence to Hainault's capital, Mons, whose belfry marks the site of Cæsar's fortress, and where Ste. Waltrude's bold fine nave and vaulting commemorate the founder of a noble order of women, charitable but not conventual, and not mendicant like the Sisters of St. Begga.

Turning seaward, Philip traverses Cæsar's battle-grounds with the Nervii and approaches their ancient capital, Tournai, seat of Merovingian kings. From afar he would see the five towers of its noble Romanesque cathedral. The belfry of 1190 would peal greeting and in procession would be carried the relics of St. Peter Martyr, of the hushed lips and bleeding crown, in a silver casket of the ninth century. Mass would be said in the imposing nave of the great cathedral, whose round pillars and arches lead up to a beautiful Gothic choir—one of the most interesting edifices on the Continent. Leaving by the Grand Place, the pure transition Gothic façade of St. Quentin's church would delight his eye; and he would dine with the monks of St. Martin in their priory, now the town hall. The famous carpets of Tournai would deck his path—their weaving an art Flemish crusaders learned from Saracens; and offerings of linen and lace would be made.

At St. Brice's he would uncover before the tomb of Childeric, king of the Franks, who died a thousand years earlier.

Outside the walls of Courtrai our prince lingered on the field where the Battle of the Spurs was won in 1302, and



OUDEBERG GATE, PALACE OF THE COUNT OF FLANDERS, GHENT

visited the monastery church—now destroyed—to see 700 golden spurs taken from dead French knights. He could not neglect to observe St. Martin's beautiful stone ciborium; and in Notre Dame he would cross himself before the hair of Christ brought from Palestine in 1238 by Philip of Alsace.

Next, to fortified Ypres, with its already dwindling population of 200,000 souls, its 4,000 looms, its linens and laces. Nowhere in his travels would our pilgrim find lovelier rose-windows than St. Martin's. The rich Gothic cloth hall, model

for modern architects, is unequalled—relic of industry and commerce decayed because of the silting dunes which choked the waterways. The whole light, elegant structure was completed by 1301. From its long façade looked down upon Philip the statues of thirty sovereign counts of Flanders, beginning with Baldwin Iron-Arm, ending with his own.

Not with halts, token of subjection, nor with white bandages or caps, badges of revolution, would Ghent meet her young sovereign and escort him to his since vanished chateau, the Cour des Princes. In the belfry built in 1321 "bell Roland" would make good its inscription: "When I ring, there is fire, when I peal, there is victory in Flanders." Over its tower 375 feet high glittered the present gilded dragon, taken from St. Sophia at Constantinople by Baldwin the Ninth in 1204, carried to Bruges and seized by Ghent in war. Passing the old Gothic cloth hall, through picturesque streets with gabled medieval houses, the monarch, in the new town hall, whose decorated Gothic façade is the purest in Belgium, would swear "to upholds all the wits (laws) forerights, freeholds and wonts" of the countship of Flanders. In the Friday market, forum of Ghent, van Artevelde harangued about liberty and the standard of revolt was often raised by the headstrong guilds, many historic broils occurring. The very balcony from which the leaders spoke still marks a corner house, once the municipal council room. On the way to the grain market lies the Skippers' guild, and St. Nicholas with ten towers fronts the square,—the popular saint who raised from the dead three boys who were salted down in a tub for meat! In this oldest Ghent church the tomb of Oliver Minjau and his wife records that they had together thirty-one children. The father and twenty-one sons in a procession attracted the notice of Charles V.

Our prince would dwell in the Oudeberg, the counts' feudal stronghold

built in 868. Its vast extent, massive masonry, towers and dungeons, with long secret passages beyond the ramparts, were all lost to sight in recent centuries, except a castellated gateway with Romanesque arches dating from 1180. Within twenty years the ruin was unearthed and freed from the factories, shops and tenements that had so long used its thick walls and buttresses for support. Here Jacques van Artevelde entertained Edward III and Queen Philippa. Their son, John of Gaunt (Gand, Ghent), "time honored Lancaster," was born within the precincts of St. Bavon's abbey, where rulers of Flanders had rights of hospitality. In the Oudeberg Jacqueline of Holland was imprisoned by Philip the Good, whose cannon near by, "Mad Margaret," bears his coat of arms.

From the gloomy Oudeberg the pleasure-loving Burgundians moved to their newer palace, the Cour des Princes. Mary of Burgundy and Maximilian, Philip himself and Joanna lived there. Charles V was born there, and was proud of being a Ghenter.

By the Antwerp gate Philip the Fair would visit the abbey of St. Bavon, of which Charlemagne's son-in-law Eginhard was once abbot. Its great round arches and massive pillars suggest the Byzantine style introduced by crusaders, who may have designed the ancient cruciform

window of the octagonal baptistry of St. Macaire. When Charles V dissolved the abbey in 1540, the relics of St. Bavon were moved to the parish church of St. John Baptist which henceforth became St. Bavon's cathedral.

Hubert van Eyck painted for this church of St. John the world-



TOWN HALL, GHENT

famous "Adoration of the Lamb," perhaps the first oil painting. He placed the Baptist next God the Father, whose grandly imposing figure dominates the picture. Jehovah wears the church's triple crown; a crown of earthly



ADORATION OF THE LAMB, BY HUBERT VAN EYCK, GHENT

monarchs lies at his feet. On his right the fair-haired virgin, queen of Heaven; on his left the ascetic Baptist. These are framed by St. Cecelia and her angel choristers. In the center, a square altar, the bleeding mystic Lamb of the Apocalypse. Adoring cherubim, saints in brilliant robes come from afar, and popes, cardinals and monks with their palms of martyrdom, advance in homage. The idea of worship is carried out in dramatic groups of pilgrims and knights, merchants and burghers, among whom rides Hubert van Eyck, on a white horse with his brother, Jan, beyond in a fur trimmed robe.

At Bruges—the bridge over the Zwin—Baldwin Iron-Arm built a *bourg* and a chapel to which he brought St. Donatian's relics. This castle became the seat of the counts of Flanders. There Philip the Good married Isabella of Portugal in 1429 and founded the royal order of the Golden Fleece, in allusion to Flanders' staple product, wool. There, too, Charles the Bold wedded his second wife, Margaret of York, in 1468. Charles's daughter Mary, killed at twenty-five, lived there her too brief days with Maximilian and gave birth to Philip the Fair. Philip presented the palace to the Liberty of Bruges for a town hall, and it was subsequently all destroyed except one room, in which was placed the magnificent carved chimney that keeps green the memory of these Burgundian monarchs.

On a Friday Philip would view the Sacred Blood in the Romanesque chapel built in 1150 when Count Theodoric brought from the Holy Land the precious drops caught by Joseph of Arimathea on that fatal day, A. D. 33. The great low pillars and round arches of the chapel would, as Bruges and the Brotherhood of the Blood grew richer, support an upper church of flamboyant Gothic with florid portal and lace-like stairway whose lightness does not shame the two beautiful Romanesque turrets outside. And these are a charming contrast to the six fine

Gothic towers of the elegant town hall on the same historic square.

The more democratic Grand Place of Bruges is remarkable for the majestic belfry started in 1291, finished a century later, and leaning slightly from the wind's force. Its adjoining cloth and meat markets date from 1248 and are fine specimens of early Gothic civic architecture. Philip would pause with interest at the Craenenberg where his father, Emperor Maximilian, had been imprisoned by the Flemings for refusing to them the guardianship of their infant Duke of Burgundy, young Philip himself.

In the cathedral Philip would find floating over the choir stalls the banners of Europe's greatest rulers emblazoned with the Golden Fleece. His own portrait in one of the chapels wears the famous collar of the order.

The church of Notre Dame was Philip's own by virtue of two tombs, his mother's and grandfather's, Mary and Charles. In 1502—two years before our tour—the monument for Mary ordered by Philip from Peter de Bekere of Brussels had been installed. The fine statue-portrait of the princess lay recumbent on a Gothic sarcophagus covered with the arms of her fiefs and principalities. Not yet was the Bold's grave marked by its final sepulcher, placed by the piety of Philip II at enormous cost, in 1558. Here they now lie, these last princes of the southern Netherlands, Charles's feet resting on the Lion of Flanders, Mary's cushioned by a faithful dog. Father and daughter are effigied in gold and bronze, couched on marble, upheld by armored shields, their tombs among the richest in the world, vying in splendor and interest with Granada's monument to their great contemporaries, Ferdinand and Isabella.

Filled with reverent memories of his mother, Philip would kneel in the chapel of the Holy Sacrament before Michael Angelo's pure and noble white marble "Madonna and Child," niched in a black marble shrine.





TOMB OF MARY OF BURGUNDY, NOTRE DAME, BRUGES

"And Hans Memling at Bruges!" says Thackeray, in "Roundabout Papers." "Have you never seen that dear old hospital of St. Jean on passing the gate of which you enter the fifteenth century?" The twelfth century, Thackeray might well have said, the buildings having only been enlarged, not altered, since their foundation in 1188; and Augustinian brothers and nuns still nurse the sick in the primitive wards. The hospital possesses Saint Ursula's holy arm—though her bones rest with her virgins' in her church at Cologne—and Memling was commissioned to paint a shrine for the precious relic—a miniature Gothic chapel, the sides having six sections eight inches wide. In these small spaces are pictured with adorable finish and detail and dramatic power the events of Ursula's pilgrimage to Rome and her murder, with all her maidens, by the Huns. At one end of the shrine,

Ursula protects young girls beneath her cloak; at the other, the ever-pitying Mary holds the Christ.

Among Memling's other works of love for the hospital, are an exquisite Madonna offering an apple to the Child, and the "Adoration of the Magi," his masterpiece.

From romance and worship at Bruges in 1504 young Philip the Fair goes in 1506 to cares of state and the crown of Spain, which he holds by virtue of his wife, and wears only three short months. He dies but finds no sepulture. Joanna, distraught with grief, becomes Mad Joan of the Alhambra, clinging to her husband's casket and bearing it with her in her wanderings.

The world had changed when their son Charles assumed at Aix the crown of Charlemagne and Barbarossa. Cortez and Pizarro, before Charles was twenty, had conquered the Aztecs and the Incas, and



TOMB OF CHARLES THE BOLD, NOTRE DAME, BRUGES

Magellan had rounded the globe. Luther had nailed to Wittenberg palace gate his denunciation of indulgences. The Reformation had begun.

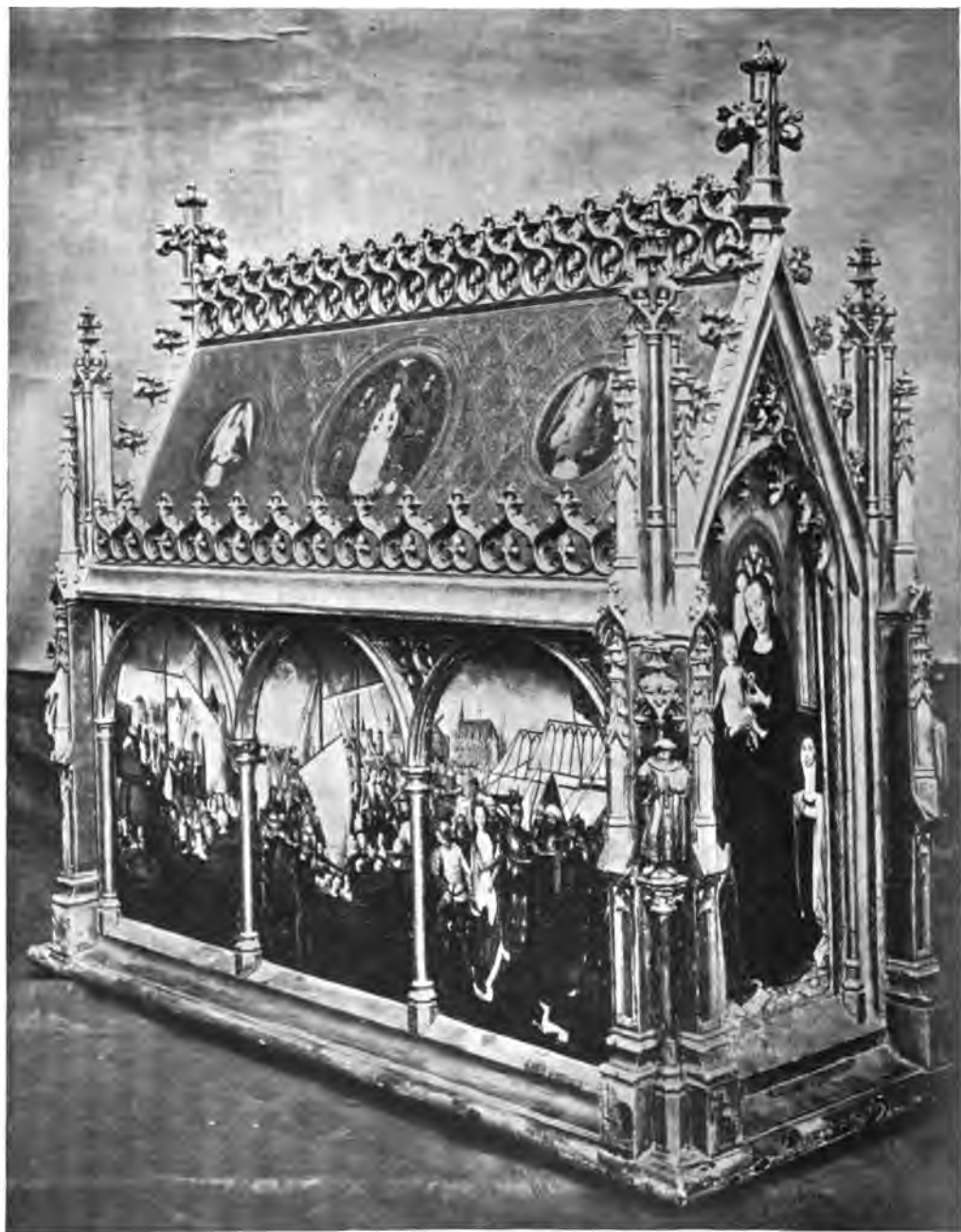
In Holland and Belgium Lutheranism made great headway and was met by the severest measures, causing revolt. Charles in the first twenty years of his reign was too busy fighting his enemies to realize that doubt of Catholicism was rampant; in the last fifteen years he devoted his waning energies to exterminating heresy. Ghent, his birthplace, enraged him by resisting his religious edicts; he practically ruined the city and built the hated Spanish citadel on the site of St. Bavon's abbey. And worse: he established the Inquisition, which is said to have put to death more than 100,000 victims. Worn out by sickness and care, Charles abdicated in 1556 in favor of his son Philip, dying two years later at the monastery of Yuste,

His will charged Philip to root out heresy.

Philip II was an egotist, a fanatic and a narrow bigot. Disliked in the Netherlands during his four years' stay, he left for Spain, naming his half-sister Margaret regent. The nobles, excluded from all posts, and harried by the Inquisition, petitioned for modification of the inquisitorial laws, and the removal of the soldiery, so odious to the people. Margaret was half frightened by the cortège, whom a courtier called "those beggars." Beggars they were, for justice and relief, not money; the epithet was adopted as the name of their league, which Philip sent Alva to disband.

Alva arrested the leaders, Egmont and Hoorne, imprisoned them in the Spanish citadel, and had them condemned to death in the town hall at Brussels. The two friends spent the night before their execution in the old





SHRINE OF ST. URSULA, HOSPITAL ST. JEAN, BRUGES  
By Hans Memling.

Bread Hall on the Grand Place. From a balcony Alva built a scaffold by which they walked to the block over the heads of the people in the Grand Place, who thus were unable to rescue their heroes. The two counts supported each other to the last and died calmly, June 5, 1568.

This judicial murder brought on a general revolt of the entire Netherlands in 1568, lengthened and intensified by Alva's infamous "Council of Troubles" at Brussels which put to death 20,000 inoffensive citizens. William the Silent, Prince of Orange, led the northern provinces and was the founder of their liberties. William in 1576 brought about the union of the southern and northern provinces. In 1581 their States-General formally threw off allegiance to Spain, and Philip put William under the ban, resulting in the latter's assassination at his palace in Delft in 1584—but not before the Flemings under his leadership had besieged and reduced the detested Spanish citadel at Ghent. William's son Maurice continued the struggle, helped by Philip's enemies, England and France, thus finally gaining for the Dutch their independence, tardily conceded by the peace of Westphalia in 1647.

The southern or Belgian provinces were less successful. Alexander of Parma, Margaret's son, governor from 1578 to 1596, besieged Antwerp for fourteen months and took it in 1585. The "Spanish Fury" followed and Antwerp's ruin was complete. Thirty thousand people left or were sent away. Though Alexander treated the southern provinces as a conquered territory, the success of their northern neighbors and their own tenacity won back some of their civil liberties, but only towards the close of a thirty years' struggle.

Philip of Spain was nearing his end, a hermit in the Escorial, living in his palace above the vault of his father and his own tomb, in two cell-like rooms, whence could be seen the elevation of the host in the gorgeous

church below. During the last year of his life, 1598, he ceded his Netherlands to his daughter, Clara Isabella, and her husband, Albert of Austria.

The death of Philip II ended a century of active and for the most part disastrous Spanish rule in Belgium—a century of retrogression as compared with the progress of other nations and other reigns.

# GLOSSARY

Brabant—brah-bon.  
 Bruges—breuzhe.  
 Courtrai—koor-tray.  
 De Bouillon—deh-bu-yon.  
 Dierick Bouts—*de-rik-bouts*.  
 Dinant—de-non.  
 Eginhard—eg-in-hard.  
 Hainault—hay-no.  
 Hanseatic—han-see-at-ik.  
 Liège—l'yezhe.  
 Maastricht—mas-trikt.  
 Mechlin (Malines)—mek-lin.  
 Meuse—muse.  
 Namur—na-moor.  
 Pepin—pay-pan.  
 Poilvache—pwahl-vahsh.  
 St. Barthelemy—san-bar-tel-me.  
 St. Géry—san-jay-re.  
 Ste. Waltrude—sant-wal-treud.  
 Van Eyck—van-ike.  
 Vesdre—vaydr.

# REVIEW QUESTIONS

I. What was the relation of Belgium to the Roman Empire and later to that of Charlemagne? 2. What divisions of modern Belgium suggests the days of feudalism? 3. Show how the architecture of the country presents a record of its history. 4. How was Belgium ruled in the Middle Ages? 5. What incidents show the importance of Bruges in 1304? 6. What influence had the van Artevelde in Flanders? 7. How did Flanders come under the rule of Spain? 12. What were the architectural glories of Belgium under the Burgundians? 13. Who were the van Eycks? 14. What other artists could Belgium boast at this time? 15. What associations have the mountains and forest of Ardennes? 16. What historic interest has Namur? 17. What would Philip see in his journey down the Meuse? 18. Describe some of the attractions of Liège. 19. Where is the tomb of Charlemagne? 20. What industry flourished at Mechlin? 21. What was the legend of St. Gudula? 22. What sights would Philip the Fair behold in Br



CHIMNEY, PALACE OF JUSTICE, BRUGES

sels? 23. What is the oldest church in Belgium? 24. What objects of interest exist at Tournai? 25. Where and what are the relics of the famous Battle of the Spurs? 26. Describe the treasures of Ypres. 27. What historic associations make Ghent especially interesting? 28. What work of art is found at St. Bavon's cathedral? 29. What objects of interest would claim Philip at Bruges? 30. What events of world importance took place between the reigns of Philip the Fair and his son Charles V? 31. How did Charles attempt to crush Protestantism? 32. How did Philip drive the Netherlands into revolt? 33. When and how did the Dutch gain their independence? 34. What success did the southern provinces achieve?

## SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What book has been called the Flemish Bible, and why? 2. What is the official language of Belgium? 3. Who were the Walloons. 4. What battles were fought on Neerwinden plain? 5. Who was Don Juan of Austria? 6. What are the colors of Belgium? 7. Where did they come from?

What was the Hanseatic League? 8. What was the occasion of the Battle of the Spurs?

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A very important aid to the study of art in Belgium will be found in the series of monographs entitled "Masters in Art" (Bates & Guild, Boston). These monographs may be secured for fifteen cents each. Each contains ten pictures by some great artist, a sketch of his life, comments upon his place in the history of

art, brief discussions of each of the ten pictures and a bibliography. Of the Belgian painters, both Rubens and the Van Eycks are included in the series. The Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y., will furnish these two monographs upon the receipt of thirty cents.

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BREAD HALL, BRUSSELS.

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## Bach

By William Armstrong

Musical Critic and Lecturer.

THE great debt of music to Johann Sebastian Bach lay unrecognized for one hundred years after his death. Then, with the aid of Mozart and of Mendelssohn, the vast amount that he had accomplished, and the tremendous service that he had rendered to his art, grew gradually to acknowledgment.

The value of his work influenced every branch of music and it would be difficult to overestimate its worth. His genius was so many-sided that it affected not only organ music and playing, with which his name will always be most intimately associated, but the great elevation of church music in general; the development of writing for combined chorus and orchestra, which influenced that branch of art in which Wagner was to say a more advanced word; the grounding of a new clavichord technic that found fuller culmination on the piano through Liszt, and the establishing of a broader foundation upon which musical writers and interpreters in every branch were subsequently to build.

To the student of inherited traits, he forms the most interesting subject, for his ancestors had for eighteen generations devoted themselves to that art to which he was destined to give the highest

and culminating expression of their influence.

To the valleys of Thuringia there came in the first decade of the sixteenth century Veit Bach, a baker, who sought refuge there from religious persecution in Presburg, Hungary. He settled at the village of Wechmar, near Gotha. He played the zither to the rhythmical beat of his mill-wheel, and his descendants eventually with but two or three exceptions became musicians. They were earnest, honest, pious people, and in the long line of which the great Bach regarded him as founder, only one is mentioned as a stray sheep, upon whom the blight of drunkenness had fallen.

No Scotch clan ever held together with a stronger tenacity than the Bachs, who helped each other in material ways when misfortune came upon the members of the band. To bind their adherence the closer once a year they met in full strength at Erfurt, Eisenach, or Arnstadt to spend a day in family intercourse.

Beginning with the two sons of Veit Bach, Hans and Johannes, the men of the family made a part of the musical history of that region, some in the humble capacity of town piper or town trumpeter, others as cantors and organists.

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This is the first of a series of nine articles on "German Master Musicians." The complete list in THE CHAUTAUQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Bach (September), by William Armstrong.

Handel (October), Haydn (November), Mozart (December), Beethoven (January), Schubert (February), Schumann (March), by Thomas Whitney Surette.

Wagner (April), Brahms (May), by William Armstrong.



JOHANN SEBASTIAN BACH

During the Thirty Years' War the town pipers and musicians had sunk in public esteem, and about the middle of the seventeenth century guilds were formed to raise their position to one of greater dignity. From these the Bach family appears to have held aloof, and there is reason to believe that they felt themselves, as a clan, strong and able enough to sustain their part of the elevating process unaided.

The date of the birth of Johann Sebastian Bach, which took place at Eisenach, Thuringia, in the shadow of the Wartburg, is set by Philipp Spitta, his best

and strongest biographer, as March 31, 1685. His father, Johann Ambrosius Bach, of whom he was the youngest son, was at that time court and town musician of Eisenach then esteemed for the standard of its music. Of his early life little is known beyond the accepted fact that he studied the violin with his father, whose death took place in 1695, shortly before the boy's tenth birthday.

His brother, Johann Christoph, married and settled as organist at Ohrdruf, took him in, and set about his training in theory and the harpsichord. Soon mastering preliminary studies he reached out

for higher things, and in his achievements is supposed by some biographers to have raised his brother's jealousy. In the collection of music that Christoph had copied was a book containing selections by Froberger, Fischer, Buxtehude, and others with whose work the boy Sebas-



ST. MICHAEL'S CHURCH, OHDRUF  
With the Lyceum, now the Burgerschule.

tian eagerly longed to acquaint himself. The book was persistently denied him, but boyish energy and desire found a way to its possession. By rolling up the precious manuscript he could slip it through the lattice door of the cupboard in which it was locked. Stealing out of bed, Sebastian would copy the treasured compositions by moonlight. Six whole months it took him to complete his task, but when it was done his treasure was taken from him without pity by his brother. Only after the death of Christoph was it restored.

The incident, cruel to a child in its severity, did not turn him for a moment from his enthusiasm of purpose. Toiling ahead with the best means at hand, even though they were not the ones he favored, he studied besides at the Ohrdruf

Lyceum, where he laid the foundation of his education in Latin, Greek, theology, rhetoric and arithmetic. He also sang in the Lyceum chorus, and having an excellent voice received a meager stipend for his services.

At the age of fifteen the death of his brother Christoph sent him out into the world to make a way for himself, and, recommended by Herda, the cantor of the Lyceum, he found a position at the convent school of St. Michael, Lüneburg. He was admitted to the choir, but soon losing his voice turned his talents to account as rehearsal accompanist, and as violinist when his services were required.

The demands in those days upon his time were many, but he still found opportunity to scan the musical compositions in the convent library, and to study the organ with Böhm, a musician of note at Lüneburg.

Eager to learn he journeyed on foot to Hamburg, a distance of twenty-five miles, to seek nearer acquaintance with the noted organist and composer Reinken, from whom he obtained the models of his early compositions. Again, he would tramp to Celle, forty-five miles south of his home, to hear the court band play French music, and to gain a more intimate idea of its style and qualities.

A further opportunity for advancement came to Bach in 1703, when he was invited by Johann Ernst, younger brother of Duke Wilhelm Ernst, to Weimar as violinist in his orchestra, with the title of court musician. Through associations there his knowledge of instrumental music, chiefly Italian, was enlarged and strengthened.

His stay in Weimar was, however, brief, for on August 14 of the same year he received his first appointment as organist at the New Church, Arnstadt.

From the outset Bach appears to have been fortunate for, while his salary was for years a meager one, his wants were simple, and his work so entirely absorbed him that he had no other tastes

to gratify. In his later career he might readily have bettered his financial condition had he lost sight in a measure of his original aims. But this he never did, and an iron constitution supported his enthusiasm during days and nights of toil. In the height of his fame he was asked how he had acquired it. His answer was, "I was obliged to be industrious, whoever is equally so will succeed as well."

The great number of works that he placed to his credit is astonishing, and yet of many complete trace was lost. After his death at Leipsic his music so quickly lost interest that a certain cupboard at the St. Thomas school is still shown which was once filled with certain of his compositions of which every vestige has disappeared—for the reason, so tradition says, that when a boy wanted a piece of paper to wrap his bread and butter in he tore off a leaf of the manuscripts of Johann Sebastian Bach.

His self-criticism was keen; much of his earlier work he subsequently destroyed, other compositions of the same period he rewrote when his powers were developed. With him there was always a thirst to learn everything that had already been done in music, and on this knowledge he builded and enlarged his own ideas, which by degrees found existing methods too narrow for their expression.

For two years he kept on at Arnstadt contentedly working out the things he had acquired theoretically, and beginning to show his eminence as an organist. But towards the end of 1705 unrest seized him, and he started out afoot on a journey of two hundred miles to Lübeck to study with Buxtehude, one of the greatest organists then living. Leave of absence for four weeks had been granted him, but, absorbed in Buxtehude's teachings, the four weeks lengthened to sixteen, and he got back to Arnstadt to find the church authorities dissatisfied with the deputy whom he had left in charge, and in very bad temper.

This prolonged stay with the great musician of Lübeck was to have a profound influence on Bach's career, for, building upon Buxtehude's fabric he brought the fugue to the greatest perfection given any composer to bring it. This Bach could not foresee, but he felt, beyond doubt, that he had gained much in many directions, and that the congregation of the New Church would be



THE KEYBOARDS OF BACH'S ARNSTADT ORGAN NOW IN THE RATHHAUS

sharers in the benefits. With his opinion, though, they evidently failed to agree.

There were faults on both sides. Bach was irritable and obstinate always. The choir at Arnstadt was in a state of alienation, if not revolt. Later, at St. Thomas in Leipsic, where the school had fallen on bad lines, and was at its lowest ebb when he became cantor there, his troubles, which were manifold, he met in his own characteristic way, as he did these earlier ones. He is recorded to have provided for his choir musically with the care of a father, but with the inefficient he was irate and impatient, once going the length of snatching the wig from his own head and throwing it at the organist Görner, who had made a



blunder, with the admonition that he would better be a shoemaker.

Bach's ideals were lofty, his sincerity and enthusiasm were unbounded. With a direct forwardness of purpose that knew no roundabout way for securing his ends, he was never one to placate or temporize. Being called upon to give reasons for his absence and behavior to the Arnstadt church authorities in eight days, he gave no attention to the matter for eight months, and then only when the consistory again demanded it.

The pettiness of existing conditions irritated his sense of justice, and he accepted a position as organist at the church of St. Blasius, in Mühlhausen.

His marriage to his cousin Martha Barbara Bach, daughter of Michael Bach of Gehren, took place at Arnstadt on October 17, of the same year, 1707. The two lived happily at Mühlhausen until trouble arose with the "pietist" branch of the congregation, who looked upon art as a part of the world, and insisted that all expression should be excluded from church music. A devout and orthodox Lutheran, the most elevating and religious of his cantatas met with strong disapproval. A year after his appointment he therefore regretfully, for a second time, sent in his resignation to the church authorities, and they, in turn, appear to have as regretfully accepted it.

His third appointment, which he at once entered upon, was that of organist and chamber musician at the court of Duke Wilhelm Ernst of Saxe-Weimar. The little town, with its comparatively poor court, gave him a welcome to its art-loving boundaries in the early part of the eighteenth century such as it gave later to Liszt and Wagner.

The interest in music of the reigning duke was deep, and being of a religious turn of mind, Bach's elevated writings for the church service were sympathetically recognized. Under these congenial influences an important period of his career as composer unfolded, and he

grew in eminence as a virtuoso organist, being called upon to open organs in many cities in Germany. In these visits, among them a gala one at Dresden, where Marchand, the then famous French organist and composer, was afraid to meet him in competition before a jury of musicians, his fame became firmly established.

The smooth tenor of events was disturbed on the death of Drese, *capellmeister* to the court, by the appointment of his son to the vacant post. Bach felt that after his long service the position should in justice have been given to him. In consequence of this slight he accepted a similar office with Prince Leopold of Cöthen in 1717.

The musical performances at the castle were of notable excellence, and the prince so highly prized the services of Bach that he had the *capellmeister* accompany him, together with six members of the orchestra, on all his journeys. On his return from one of these Bach was met with the sad news of the death of his wife during his absence. Only thirty-six years old, she had been his keenest sympathizer, and the blow to one so devoted to the circle of his family as was Bach proved a sharp one. Love of art, which has ever been so dear a comfort and support to those absorbed in it, drew him more closely than ever to his work.

The Cöthen period marked splendid progress in his development, many pupils were attracted to him there, and Scheibe says in his "Criticism of Musicians" that it was admitted on all sides that as an organist Bach had no equal in Germany.

A circumstance now intervened, which, dismal though it must have seemed to Bach at a time when he had deemed himself settled in happy surroundings for the remainder of his life, resulted most fortunately for his work, and for the enduring value of his fame. Prince Leopold took to himself a wife who looked with equal and impartial dis-

favor upon music and musicians, and that branch of art languished at Cöthen.

So we find Bach reluctantly breaking up his household once again, and accepting a fifth position, this time at Leipsic as cantor of the church of St. Thomas, a position carrying with it marked musical importance.

During his residence at Cöthen, and left with four little children on the death of his wife, he married Anna Magdalena Wülken, a singer at the local court, in 1721. A good musician with a fine soprano voice, she gave him immense aid in his musical undertakings. Thirteen children were born to them, but all died young save three daughters and three sons.

At Leipsic, through contentions and strife, but with the sunshine of peace at times broadly shining, always happy in his family circle, Bach labored on devotedly for the remaining twenty-seven years of his life, and there he died July 28, 1750. There he wrote his masterwork, one above all others that has settled his immortality in this branch of composition, the "Passion According to St. Matthew" and also the great "Mass in B minor," as well as a number of motets which he composed for the choir of St. Thomas's church, and the serenely beautiful "Christmas Oratorio." For the same choir he wrote also the "Magnificat in D," one of his highest inspirations, and a vast list of cantatas.

In the *Matthew Passion*, permeated with profound devoutness of feeling, he solved a problem never hitherto attained, that of letting both choir and orchestra have full effect in contrast, and still sustain their combination with one another. That is one great phase of the musical advancement which Bach's powers have given us, the elevating of the instrumental in importance in choral works as a means of strength and powerful dramatic value, and it cannot be given too important a place in the contemplation of his accomplishments.

Bach's melodies preserve in their cantabile or true singableness, an appeal to all classes; their freshness is that of an eternal youth.

The writing of his figures or dismembered chords was of a brilliant originality. He attained in the fugue the highest form of which art would seem capable. With the immortal of his works in this direction must be classed those for the organ; of which Liszt has given us in piano arrangement the great ones in G minor and A minor.

In the inventions and preludes and fugues of the "Well Tempered Clavi-



ST. THOMAS'S CHURCH, LEIPSIC

chord," which so wonderfully develop the fingers and power of musical expression in giving emphasis and character to interwoven melodies, he gave to the modern pianist the purest basis of technical training.

His three violin sonatas compress within their limit a test of musicianship for the most advanced virtuosi of our time.

Yet all these are but a tithe of the works with which he has ennobled our musical literature, and for which he wrote in almost every form.

Finding the musical expressions of his age neither pliant nor numerous enough, he remedied their deficiencies, gaining higher flexibility of expression through the application of his ideas. Though he may apparently have transgressed the existing rules of his time, in reality he immensely broadened and strengthened them, leaving a new and splendid foundation for composers in every form of the art to build upon.

In his labors and in his family he found his happiness. Too absorbed in his art to think of fame, he attained it so splendidly through a pious sincerity, profound thought, devotion and unremitting toil, that today we give to him the reverential title of the Father of Music.

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How was the influence of Bach felt on the development of music in general? 2. What musical inheritance had he? 3. What were the chief events of his early life? 4. What educational opportunities had he? 5. What did he gain from his stay at Weimar? 6. Describe his experiences at Arnstadt. 7. What were his strong personal characteristics? 8. Why was he obliged to give up his work at Mühlhausen? 9. How did he develop during his stay at Weimar? 10. What works belong to his later life at Leipsic?

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The two last named are brief, handy as references and in the main exact.

## The Study of Music

Introduction to a series of six articles on Handel, Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, Schubert and Schumann.

By Thomas Whitney Surette

Lecturer on music for the American University Extension Society, Teachers' College of Columbia University, The Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, Member of the Folk Song Society of London, Editor Great Composers' Series Music Lovers' Library.

"Have no unrelated facts in your mind."

IT has been already demonstrated that a considerable and very helpful amount of appreciation of great music may be acquired by those who know nothing of its technique. For a long time music has been looked upon by English speaking people as a thing apart; you had a taste for it or not according as fortune had favored you. If you were attracted, or forced, to study it your study usually took the form of lessons in performing (or reproducing) it; otherwise you left it severely alone. The object of these articles is not to help you to perform music, but to give to all—those who have an "ear," and those who think they haven't—help in appreciating it.

As a matter of fact music can be

studied in much the same way as painting and literature. Each is the expression of life—of men's thoughts and feelings, and, particularly, of their aspirations. A moment's thought will convince any intelligent person that painting, for example, has developed along with, and as the expression of, the changing life of man. Nothing in art is accidental. The early Italian painters did not devote themselves to religious subjects by accident. All men's thoughts were then shadowed by a kind of religious fear; they were largely occupied not in living a good life here, but in getting safely into the next life. Men thought little of the beauty of the natural world around them, and their treatment of landscape painting was correspondingly undeveloped, so each great

art movement represents some profound new thought surging in the minds of men. Gothic architecture, Elizabethan literature, the realistic novel—all these resulted from new conditions of life of which they are the flower.

Bach, for example, stands for patriarchal Germany; for the Reformation; he is like Luther, unbending before opposing forces. That he wrote as he did is no accident. All the characteristics of his time—the formal manners, the powdered wigs and short clothes, the religious conviction, the reverence for tradition—all these found a natural expression in his music. The fugue itself was admirably suited to express these ideas. But one thing stands somewhat in the way of our appreciation of Bach. His phraseology is old fashioned; his (musical) words and phrases are, to a degree, out of use as, to a greater extent, Chaucer's are. Largely on this account he is considered dry by amateurs. No greater mistake can be made. The beginning of the G minor fugue, No. 16 in Volume I of the "Well Tempered Clavichord" is as poetic as any modern piece, but its treatment being archaic, we leave it as dull.

So, as a prelude to the study of Handel, we should make ourselves acquainted with: first, Saxony in 1700 (through any good history)—its manners, customs, ways of living, etc.; what men were thinking about and doing. Second, the general trend of Italian music in the early part of the eighteenth century (which can be learned in Grove's \* "Dictionary of Music and Musicians," articles on "Handel," and on "Opera"). Third an oratorio of Bach, the "St. Matthew Passion" by preference, studying the first and last choruses, and the arias "The Savior Faleth Low," and "What tho' trials," with the recitatives preceding them.

Study of the oratorio may be under-

taken in various ways; the best way is, of course, to play it or get a friend to do it for you; but in any case, study the pieces referred to here in connection with the article on "Oratorio" in Grove, and try to get an idea of how they are constructed so as to be able to observe the contrast between Bach and Handel. As an example of the fugue, the one by Bach already referred to makes an interesting study. The student is also recommended to procure Hadow's "Sonata Form" to use in connection with Grove's dictionary, and (later) Hadow's "Studies in Modern Music," two volumes, Macmillan & Company, New York.

Mr. Armstrong's excellent biographical article has furnished all the information necessary in regard to Bach's life, and, in the six succeeding articles, only a brief outline of biography will be given, reliance being placed on the student's power to get the necessary facts from other sources.

**NOTE**—In connection with these studies arrangements should be made to have the music itself produced. In many cases local musicians may be called upon to play the pieces named before the circle. Almost every town has a music teacher or church organist who will be glad to give such service. Bach's "St. Matthew Passion," also his "Prelude and Fugue No. 16 in G Minor" from "The Well Tempered Clavichord," Vol. 1, the two works for special study in connection with Mr. Armstrong's article on Bach, may be secured at special prices through THE CHAUTAUQUAN when copies are not owned by local musicians.

The pieces of music selected for illustration and study in these articles may be secured in the form of rolls for the pianola, thus enabling persons without previous musical training to perform them. The rolls are specially edited and annotated; they have been adopted (in connection with the lessons written by Mr. Surette) by Harvard and other institutions of learning. Pianolas may often be borrowed, or rented from local dealers, and arrangements are being made to secure the use of the rolls at nominal rates for study purposes. Full particulars may be obtained by writing to the Editor of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

Mr. Surette has kindly offered to answer questions bearing directly upon the subject of his articles and methods of study. Irrelevant questions cannot be answered; in sending questions state what books mentioned in the bibliographies you have access to; stamp for reply should be enclosed; address all inquiries to Editor of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Hyde Park, Chicago.

\* Grove's Dictionary will be found in most libraries; if not the librarian should be asked to secure this standard work.



ALEXANDER III BRIDGE, PARIS

# Civic Lessons From Europe

## Street Decoration

By Milo Roy Maltbie

Assistant Secretary Art Commission of the City of New York.

**A**MERICAN cities are unsurpassed in the beauty of their private residences; but the public places are frequently refuse-strewn, badly paved, characterless and neglected. Attention seems riveted on the adornment of private buildings; the communal property is the care of no one. The citizen leaves his office and rushes for his home or his club, as if the time spent upon the street or in the public places of the city were wasted. Yet the same individual in Europe will drink with the boulevardiers of Paris, patronize the

German street cafés, and enjoy the shaded piazzas of Italian cities. In Amsterdam he will stroll with the natives along Kalverstrasse, in Budapest he will frequent the Franz Joseph Quay and the parks along the Danube, in Madrid he will saunter along the Paseo del Prado or the neighboring boulevards, and vow that he never enjoyed anything more. He is having a vacation, it is true, but when he wishes to rest or chat with his friends here, does he ever think of going to a street café or to a park? It would seem that one-half the business and three-

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This is the first of a series of articles on "Civic Lessons from Europe." A partial list is as follows:

Street Decoration, by Milo Roy Maltbie (September).

La Maison du Peuple, a Belgian Coöperative

Business, by Mary Rankin Cranston (October).

Forestry in Germany, by Raphael G. Zon (November).



STREET INTERSECTION, COLOGNE

fourths of the visiting of Europe are done in the streets, boulevards or parks. Apparently the home is principally a place to sleep.

The reasons for this contrast are many, but a very important factor is the great difference in the beauty and attractiveness of public places. In American cities streets are principally means of communication—purely utilitarian, usually devoid of trees, ill-kept, threaded by noisy cars and wagons—narrow cañons between lofty structures. The man who would choose to sit here in preference to his home or a place of amusement would be a queer individual. There are few small parks, and other facilities for social enjoyment out of doors are very limited. Occasionally in a small city or town, one finds a beautiful boulevard, and as certainly he also finds a well patronized promenade, a genuine social center. But these are exceptional.

#### IMPORTANCE OF STREET DECORATION

When one realizes how completely the whole aspect of a town is determined by the character of its public places, it is

surprising that more consideration is not given to their appearance. If the streets of a country village are overgrown with weeds, the whole town has an unprogressive appearance, no matter how fine its school buildings or its church may be. A metropolitan city may boast of a magnificent art museum, beautiful public libraries, an impressive city hall and artistic courts, but if the streets are dirty and disordered, lined with enormous billboards, and occupied by ugly and obtrusive objects, all the fine buildings count for little in determining the general appearance of the city.

#### CIVIC ART PAYS

Someone may ask: But what difference does it make whether a city, town or village is beautiful or not? Many answers might be given. One might point out the value of culture, the stimulating and ennobling influence of art, its importance as an educational medium, and its effect in increasing the economic productiveness of the laborer; but the person who would ask such a question in this day will appreciate but the one answer: *It pays*. There

is competition between cities and towns, just as surely as there is competition between business men. Every town strives to attract to itself the wealthiest, brainiest and most progressive men of the country. Its future growth and influence depend upon its success in doing so. If it offers superior advantages and attractions, it succeeds. Now, one of the determining factors is the appearance of the town itself. If it is beautiful, men prefer it: if



MUNICIPAL CASINO AND STREET CAFE,  
NICE, FRANCE

it is unsightly, they go elsewhere, and with them go their wealth, influence, business and ability. This is true of all cities and towns, but it is particularly true of smaller centers. A metropolis has many other advantages to offer; the town or small city has few, and must therefore utilize every one to its full extent.

Civic art pays even more directly. It is said that tourists annually leave in Italy a sum of money equivalent to the interest upon the whole national debt. Many towns in Italy and Greece would be desolate and forgotten today were it not for the wonderful masterpieces of art handed down from ages long past. The thousands of Americans who visit Paris every year go there largely because Paris leads the world in civic art, and the sums spent there play no small part in the city's budget.

#### INFLUENCE OF STREET SCENES

There is still another reason why public places should be made artistic. Every person spends considerable time upon the streets. Thousands pass a given point

in a short time. Hence the expenditure of a certain sum upon a work of art will be much more effective when it is used to beautify a street than when it is merely ornaments a park or an unfrequented spot. The statue of Nathan Hale, standing as it does within a few feet of Broadway, New York, exerts a far greater influence and much more constantly than do a score of statues in Central Park, far up-town and distant from the populace. Parks doubtless should contain works of art, and there should be splendid museums with their priceless collections. But it must not be forgotten that if the vast masses of citizens are to enjoy and be influenced by art, the objects which they see constantly



OUTDOOR CAFE IN MARSEILLES

Note family groups and children.

must be artistic. It is not the isolated, infrequent glimpses which effect results, but repeated, daily contact. If surroundings for twenty-nine days of the month are inartistic, their effect will almost obliterate any art influence the environment of the thirtieth day may have, no matter how perfect, from an art point of view, it may be.

From these premises it follows that the artistic treatment of cities includes not only works of art as such but a multitude of other factors, from an efficient street cleaning department to beautiful façades, from street utilities to building regulations, from the most modest bust to the Dewey arch. It does not necessarily involve enormous expenditures, but does insist upon obedience to the laws of

harmony and proportion, a carefully devised plan and the judicious expenditure of current appropriations. What these general statements mean in detail we shall now ascertain.

#### CLEAR THE STREETS OF USELESS STRUCTURES

In the first place there are many things which ought to be removed from the streets, or never introduced where population is dense and traffic congested, such as telegraph and telephone poles, advertising clocks, lamps and posts of various descriptions; and, of course, the obstruction of sidewalks with boxes, barrels and stands should never be permitted. They impede traffic and materially reduce the width of the walk, usually where the crowds are so great as to make more, rather than less, space imperative. Lamp posts should not be left standing after they have ceased to be used, Hydrants occupy valuable space, and the method in vogue in some cities of providing for hose connections just below the surface, by removing a small plate flush with the walk, ought to be widely imitated. Fire and police alarm boxes could be affixed to buildings, instead of standing upon the curb.

The union of street fixtures should be adopted wherever possible. There is no excuse for erecting upon the same corner separate standards for fire and police alarm boxes, letter boxes, gas and electric

these utilities and perhaps all, could easily be devised. In certain cities, trolley poles and street lamps have already been combined and in others, the union of letter,



ADVERTISING KIOSK, STOCKHOLM

police and fire alarm boxes has proved to be very popular. The plan of placing the *électrolier* in the center of the street instead of upon the curb is worthy of special notice; it divides traffic and affords a refuge for the pedestrian who often finds it difficult to avoid being run down.

#### THE ADVERTISING NUISANCE

The advertising nuisance, including billboards, sky signs, electric signs, "banner" and "sandwich" men, and the miscellaneous poster, probably does more to mar our streets than any other one thing. Every available point has been occupied by some tobacco, soap, pickle or baking powder company. No wall area is so large, no building so high, no boulevard so beautiful, no scenery so entrancing that the advertiser has hesitated to flaunt the product of his skill. Indeed, the larger the wall, the more attractive the building, the more beautiful the avenue, the more scenic the landscape, the more eager is he to daub paint and posters. If one flees to the country to refresh mind and body, or seeks to enjoy the beauty of the landscape when passing from city



ELECTROLIER AND ISLE OF SAFETY, PARIS

Copied extensively in other French cities. lamps, street name signs and trolley poles. A standard combining at least four of



to city, he is constantly confronted by his old associates on the city bill-boards.

This is not the place to outline in detail what should be done to remedy this evil, but some plan should be devised in harmony with the needs of the locality, such as the entire prohibition of sky signs, the restriction of the size and location of bill-boards, the regulation of the char-



ELECTROLIER, COLOGNE

acter of posters, the provision of artistic advertising kiosks to which all advertisements must be confined, the initiation of competitions for artistic signs or the taxation of advertisements, especially large ones.

#### UTILITIES SHOULD BE ARTISTIC

Assuming that the streets are paved, that pipe galleries are provided so that the pavement may not constantly be disturbed by the laying of pipes or wires, that an efficient street cleaning department is maintained, that all unnecessary incumbrances are kept off, the next thing to be done is to see that all utilities are artistic. This does not mean that they should be decked with meaningless ornaments, but rather that they should have simple, graceful lines, harmonious proportions and modest colors—requirements that add nothing

to the cost. The preparation of the original model may be expensive, but when this cost is divided among many thousand copies, the extra expense becomes insignificant. An artistic fixture must also be substantially built but in the end this will lessen rather than increase the expenditure.

Apparently the only reason why streets do not have beautiful fixtures, is that officials are not made to feel that there is public demand, and that they are not aided in securing good designs. In certain cities, private organizations have wisely gone so far as to prepare suitable designs and to present them to the city. In others, where it seemed impossible to secure official attention, organizations have erected fixtures at their own expense, as examples of what should be done. In still other towns, they have worked through the contracting companies, who have welcomed practical suggestions and altered their plans to meet the requirements of art. Experience shows that there is great need for an active public sentiment and a willingness upon the part of art workers to place their abilities at the disposal of the city.

Although attention has only recently been paid to the character of street fixtures, there are already many instances of artistic designs. The accompanying illustrations show what a few cities have done.

#### THE TROLLEY POLE

Trolley poles and wires disfigure a street more or less, and any system of electrical propulsion which avoids their use is greatly to be preferred. But the overhead trolley is cheaper than other devices, and, at present, it is the only electrical system profitable in sparsely settled districts. As many towns prefer it, the question to be considered is how to make it less objectionable. Where streets are narrow, the wires may be strung from buildings, and the use of poles thus be avoided. But this device is not of gen-

eral application, especially in American cities. Sometimes it is possible to utilize electric light or telegraph poles, but the latter should not be allowed in cities, and the former are generally too far apart, and not set with sufficient care to endure the strain. Thus, practically the only recourse is to provide an artistic form. To speak of an artistic trolley pole sounds chimerical, but that it is both possible and practicable has been demonstrated.

If the streets upon which trolley cars run are bordered with trees, it is often possible so to arrange tracks, wires and poles as to hide them with foliage. The noise also is partially smothered, and a ride in summer becomes very refreshing. But all these are expedients, and when such progress shall have been made in the electrical industry as to eliminate the trolley and even to place the cars themselves underground, as is being done in several foreign and a few American cities, the improvement will be very welcome.

#### TRANSPORTATION FACILITIES

Transportation problems of city life are extremely difficult to solve, and the artistic side seems to be as much of a puzzle as the engineering problem. Track elevation has solved the grade crossing difficulty, but does not improve the view. The construction of a subway entirely roofed over, having been made entirely practicable and attractive by progress in the electrical industry, is the best solution from the artistic as well as the utilitarian point of view, as it relieves

the streets of traffic and removes noise and dirt. In certain cities, notably Vienna, the space above the subway has been transformed into shaded avenues and small parks. Possibly this is a



TROLLEY POLE, COPENHAGEN

somewhat expensive method for all cities to adopt, but wherever tracks have been depressed or raised by the use of embankments, a great deal can be accomplished through the planting of trees, shrubs and vines.

The elevated railroad is a still more difficult problem and is growing in disfavor. However, much can be done to reduce the objectionable features. The lines of the structure need not be abrupt or severely angular. The Hochbahn in Berlin leaves much to be desired, but compared with the Manhattan Elevated Railroad in New York, it seems almost a work of art. There is a difference of thirty years between the construction of the two roads, and some progress was to be expected. This excuse does not apply, however, to the "L" roads of Chicago or to the structure recently erected by the Rapid Transit Company in the upper portion of the Borough of Manhattan and the Borough of the Bronx, where there has been utter disregard of any esthetic consideration and where the experience of



COMBINED TROLLEY POLE AND ELECTROLIER, BORDEAUX, FRANCE



TRIUMPHAL ARCH AND CHAMPS ELYSEES, PARIS

foreign as well as American cities seems to have been thrust aside.

Whatever may be said regarding the railroad *structure*, the *stations* need not be ugly whether of surface, subway or elevated roads. Standing as they do at the intersection of streets and seen therefore from many directions, it is extremely important that they should be artistic. In Vienna and Budapest the results are generally very pleasing. In Paris, l'Art Nouveau has run riot. The Boston subway stations are simple, chaste and well adapted to the purpose for which they were intended. Certain of the structures in Berlin are also deserving of approval, especially those located in small parks and surrounded with shrubs and trees. The latest kiosks in New York, just erected by the Rapid Transit commission, ought to put Father Knickerbocker to shame, for not only is the design inartistic but they have frequently been so located as to obstruct the sidewalk and destroy whatever of symmetry they may have. Can it be that New York is so indifferent to the appearance of its streets that this work will go on without a protest? If the does not set an example in its own

work, how can it expect private individuals to interest themselves in civic art?

Let no one infer that it is urged that American cities should slavishly copy European experience. Each city, each town, each village has its own peculiar conditions. Its topography, its street plan, its wealth, its many other factors may make the methods adopted in other localities entirely unsuited for it. But what has been accomplished does prove that no matter how insuperable the obstacles may appear at first, they may be surmounted and most artistic results achieved. Each city or town has certain natural advantages too, and their proper treatment will make civic art easy of accomplishment. Often the small city or town has an easier problem than the large center, for the former has its development yet in the future and it may be easily moulded and directed if only a few public-spirited persons will give a little thought and effort to its realization. That it is considered to be worth while, is shown by the rapid multiplication of art societies and improvement associations that are forming all over the United States.

One might multiply instances without number where artistic designs of public utilities, including comfort stations, letter boxes, street name signs, lamps, drinking fountains and even telegraph poles, have been adopted. Indeed, if the contrary were true, it would reflect upon the ability of the artists themselves, and no reason has yet been assigned why a utility should not be made as attractive as an object which is used for ornament alone.

#### TREE PLANTING

Probably no one factor contributes so much to the general beauty of city streets as tree planting. In metropolitan centers the tendency toward the elimination of all verdure is very strong, and many streets quickly become dull, uninteresting, extremely hot in summer and swept by bitter winds in winter. Traffic is so congested that it is often necessary to remove every obstacle that is not imperatively demanded. The paving of the entire street from building line to building line and the laying of gas, water, electric, steam and telephone mains below the surface make it difficult for trees to be kept alive; but it has been demonstrated that even under these modern conditions they can be made to grow, provided due care is taken and the proper kind of trees selected (except possibly in the districts entirely given over to business interests).

The advantages of tree planting are evident. The foliage adds a refreshing green to an otherwise colorless scene. Their shade tempers the heat and glare

of the sun on hot summer days and even in winter cause the streets to appear less bleak and bare. They may be used to hide unsightly objects and provide the seclusion which is so rare in cities but so often sought for. The beauty of Paris is largely due to the thousands of trees which line her avenues and the care with which they are tended and preserved. The Ringstrasse of Vienna, Unter den Linden of Berlin, the Salon del Prado of Madrid, Michigan Avenue in Chicago, indeed, the boulevards of any city would be uninteresting and unattractive were it not for the trees, the green sward and often the floral displays.

These facts are particularly important to the smaller cities and towns, for in them it is comparatively easy, at slight expense, to line nearly every street with rows of trees, and in residence districts to grow others in the yards. Often natural groves may be preserved, and shaded drives made to afford enjoyment to those attracted from a neighboring city, as well as to the inhabitants of the town itself.

#### FLORAL DISPLAYS

Where it is impossible or inconvenient to grow trees, a proper use of ivy, window boxes and small shrubs will produce most effective results. This has been appreciated very widely within the past few years, and in the very heart of such cities as New York, Boston, Philadelphia and Chicago, one finds that monotonous blank walls have been hidden with ivy. In resi-



BOULEVARD DE LA MADELEINE, PARIS



PUBLIC BUILDING AND SQUARE, BERLIN



FLOWER BOXES IN HOTEL WINDOWS



IVY ON RIVER WALL

dential districts the effect is also most pleasing. The mass of green rests the tired eye and makes the street appear less hot. In the fall the harmonious blending of colors, constantly changing as the season progresses, is extremely beautiful, bringing to the door of the city dweller a bit of country life and color. Even in winter the vines soften the severe lines of the building and lend a charm.

The use of flower boxes and foliage plants is rapidly increasing in American cities, but nowhere has it been carried to such an extent as in Dresden, Saxony. One may pass block after block without seeing a single window which does not have its bunch of geraniums, nasturtiums, begonias, vines or foliage plants. In well-to-do quarters, the displays are extremely elaborate, but even in the tenement districts, where the cost of keeping a window box means something of a sacrifice, one finds a surprisingly large number.

This movement, which began but a few years ago, was started by an organization of private individuals who have labored in season and out of season. They besieged city officials to set the example by the decoration of public buildings, enlisted the support of the press, awarded designs for the most artistic results and prepared specific instructions for the maintenance and care of window boxes and flowers, with the result that the city has been transformed and the streets made to appear refreshing and artistic.

#### COLOR SCHEMES IN RUSSIAN CITIES

In Russian cities color has been introduced by artificial means. The exteriors of the buildings, almost without exception, are covered with plaster. The walls are of brick—the ordinary cheap, not pressed brick—and so easily affected by the weather as to make necessary a coat of plaster to protect them. This plaster cannot withstand the weather, and every year it must be repaired and repainted. It is this annual coat of paint, applied in the summer, which offers the opportunity

for the introduction of color. Ordinary whitewash is too prosaic for most Russians. Their buildings must be garbed in brighter colors.

The opportunity afforded for the production of artistic results is evident. The city might be made a Pan-American Exhibition upon an enormous scale, and instead of one color scheme, there might be an endless variety, which under proper management might rival the holy city of Revelations.

The actual results are somewhat varied, but there are instances where there is a blending of color, a harmony of decoration and a unity of treatment that call forth great admiration. Even if misguided efforts do produce inartistic results, it is an open question whether a riot of colors is not preferable to uniform mediocrity. It is certain that the view of Moscow from the top of Ivan Vélíky, on the summit of the Kremlin, is one of the most beautiful and impressive that one ever sees. The bright colors of the buildings are toned down by distance; the trees afford ample green for the setting of the picture; the dull red tiles of the roofs add another strong color to the background, and the brilliant blues, yellows and whites of the church spires and turrets give just enough life and variety to the scene.

American cities do not have the opportunities that are Russia's because of the difference in the structure of the buildings, but with the increasing variety in building materials—the many-colored terra-cottas, marbles, stones, bricks and metals—there is such a wide range of selection that endless variety and harmony may be evolved. Great improvement has already been made. A few years ago the residence streets of our cities were wholly monotonous, block upon block of brown stone and red brick. At present no builder would think for a moment of committing this error, and there seems to be more likelihood that there will be too great than too little con-

trast. In the main, however, the results are pleasing, and each successive builder aims to produce harmony while avoiding uniformity. Certainly this is one of the factors which should be considered in every plan of street decoration.

#### HEIGHT OF BUILDINGS TO BE LIMITED

It would be useless to attempt even to mention the factors connected with pri-



MONUMENT, BRUSSELS

vate buildings which largely determine the beauty of the street. One of the most important is their height, for where private initiative is unrestrained the results are apt to be objectionable. The writer does not assume that limitations should be uniformly applied to business and residential districts, but that a moderate limitation would contribute to the beauty of a city, he does not doubt. American cities have not gone far in this direction, but there is scarcely a European city in which there is no limit. Generally it varies with the width of the street; the greater width, the greater height permitted, up to a certain maximum. For instance, in Paris, when a street is less than thirty-nine feet wide, the height of

the buildings may not exceed fifty-nine feet. If the street is wider, the building may be higher, but none may exceed sixty-six feet to the eaves. These restrictions have had a far reaching effect. Not only are the streets and lower stories of the buildings given abundance of sunlight and air, but the sky-line is made more uniform and the character of the buildings more harmonious. There are other regulations in the building code which ought to be carefully looked after in every city, for the pressure of private interests to secure modifications for the benefit of certain properties is extremely strong.

#### LOCATION IMPORTANT

While public buildings are few in number and their character can influence, therefore, only slightly the general aspect of public thoroughfares, their location is very important. If placed at the termini, intersections or diverging points of streets, they may be seen for long distances and made to dominate the entire locality. If their façades are artistic (all public buildings should be), they will afford beautiful vistas and add greatly to the attractiveness of the streets. If located in narrow streets, they will be seen by few persons and will have no effect upon the locality, because they can be viewed only from the immediate foreground, which does not provide proper perspective or appropriate surroundings.

Paris, Vienna and our own Washington are the cities in which most attention has been given to this factor of city improvement. The street plan lends itself greatly to such treatment, and one is constantly coming upon a charming view, such as Pennsylvania Avenue near the capitol, Washington, Rue de Madeleine or Avenue de l'Opera, Paris, or the Ringstrasse, Vienna.

The same principles apply to the location of monuments, fountains, columns and the like. A large proportion of the beauty of the Arc de Triomphe of Paris,

from which radiate twelve avenues, the monumental fountain in the Place de Bronckin, Brussels, and the Nelson Column in Trafalgar Square, London, is due to their effective location. It is a mistake, however, to place monuments that either do not afford a pleasing view from all directions or are so small as not to dominate the locality, in important foci. The result is to spoil the vista in the former instance, and in the latter to dwarf and belittle what otherwise would be a very creditable statue with appropriate surroundings.

With a little foresight, semi-public

buildings may also be made to contribute to street embellishment. Churches, theaters and railroad depots naturally seek prominent places, and often are as effective as public buildings or monuments. The graceful spires of Trinity and Grace churches, closing the view from Wall Street and Broadway, are valuable assets to the art of New York. The guilds of medieval cities built many beautiful and expensive structures from their own funds as their contributions to civic art. Is there any reason why their successors, the business corporations and trade unions of today, should do less?

# Recent Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare

## Bacteriology: Food, Drink and Sewage

By Professor H. W. Conn

Professor Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.

**H**ISTORY teaches that civilization advances with the growth of the city; and much as we may admire country life, it is, after all, the town that develops humanity. A hermit may be a strong animal but he contributes nothing to social welfare. A rural community may produce vigorous men, capable of great achievements, but they will never accomplish these achievements until they come in contact with wider circles of influence than those possible in the rural village. Advances in civilization and social welfare have always come from the great centers of human aggregation. The attraction which the city possesses for the country youth is no new thing, for from earliest times there has been a constant flow of man-

kind toward great centers. Great as may be the evils from the crowding of people together, history shows that it is just such aggregations of men that produce advances in social welfare; for the scale of life in the city has ever been upon a higher plane than in the rural district. But man has always found it difficult to live in the city. The close association of so many people raises hosts of dangers, physical, mental and moral, not found elsewhere. The death rate of the city has always been high, until recently exceeding the birth rate. Hence, in spite of very great immigration, the cities have grown slowly; sometimes, indeed, they have hardly held their own. City mortality has always exceeded rural mortality; and the city has been called "the

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This is the first of a series of articles on "Recent Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare." The next article, contributed by Professor H. W. Conn, will treat of "Bacteriology: Contagious Diseases."



graveyard of humanity" because of the frightful mortality frequently shown within its walls. While association of men in cities raises the standard of social life, it has demanded a heavy tax by shortening the life of its members.

During the last century a slow change has been taking place which is rendering city life less dangerous. In the most recent times so great has been this change that not only does the birth rate in cities exceed the death rate, but in some places the city death rate today has fallen to about the level of that in the country. When this condition is reached much of the evil of city life is removed and the great cry against the herding of people together loses most of its weight. This advance in the health of the city to the plane of that of country life has been brought about by removing the dangers of close contact of man with man, and has been due principally to the knowledge and application of the laws of sanitation. While sanitation is no new thing, it has made some very great strides in the last few years, thereby contributing to the social welfare of our cities as well as advancing civilization.

This great improvement in the public health of cities cannot be attributed to any one or two discoveries. The advances made have been slow, with no great revolutionary achievements. Part of the advance is attributable to the simplest rules of cleanliness which today are so completely incorporated into our conceptions of the proper way to live. It is hardly possible for the inhabitant of a modern city to realize the disease-breeding conditions of filth in the medieval town. They have mostly disappeared with the development of the more esthetic sense of decency and with it has come a rise in the general health of cities.

The possibility of living crowded together depends upon successfully solving the problems of *water, food, secretions, and contagious diseases*, and it is their

partial solution that makes the modern city a comparatively healthy habitation.

#### WATER

Nothing has had a larger share in the improvement of social conditions than the increasing care given to the water supply. This problem hardly exists for rural communities, since each house solves the question for itself by utilizing a spring, or digging a well. The city of earlier days was in nearly the same condition, for its water supply was generally from wells or streams flowing within its limits. But the modern city has, in the matter of a water supply, a gigantic problem, not only because of the increased number of people living together, but because the rising conception of cleanliness demands purer water, and the needs of a modern city require a larger and larger amount of water per capitum. The problem is rendered still more difficult because the extending population contaminates the natural water courses, and increasing knowledge is showing more and more clearly the suicidal effect of using for drinking purposes water thus contaminated. As the need of a pure water supply has become more clearly recognized, the difficulty of furnishing such a supply has become greater. We have learned of the danger to mankind from sewage contaminated water, only to find that the natural water supplies are becoming more contaminated each year.

But nevertheless the water supply of cities has vastly improved. This improvement has been going on during a century of progress and hardly belongs to the achievements of recent years. But perhaps more has been done toward the solution of this problem in the last ten years than in any whole century of the earth's history. The achievements of the microscope and of bacteriological methods in determining the actual conditions to be met have rendered a service to society rarely understood and never appreciated. That water is a source of danger

to health has been for a long time vaguely believed. But such a vague belief, while serving to create alarm and tending to increase the use of other beverages more harmful than water, has little value in actually combating the danger. The modern bacteriologist has shown just what the danger is, what diseases are distributed by water, where the danger comes from, how it may be avoided and how remedied. He has shown that Asiatic cholera, when it appears in the form of a raging epidemic devastating a city, is distributed by the drinking water; and this knowledge has placed cholera so completely within the control of sanitation that cholera epidemics no longer ravage European cities, and it may safely be predicted that the violent cholera epidemics of earlier years will never again be repeated. In the last ten years it has been proved that typhoid fever is also distributed by drinking water. But modern science has done more than this; it has shown how the water becomes contaminated with the typhoid bacillus and, consequently, how it may be kept free from contamination. We have learned under what conditions it may be regarded as safe.

Modern bacteriological study has devised methods of water analysis that make it possible to determine its wholesomeness. Twenty years ago a chemical test was the only means for determining whether water was proper for drinking, and this was never reliable or trustworthy. Bacteriological analysis is possible today and this without trouble discloses the presence or absence of the actual deleterious agencies in the water. It has become possible to say with definiteness, of any body of water, that it is dangerous or perfectly wholesome. As a result of all this study there has arisen the profession of sanitary water engineering, which is becoming filled by bright young men who are rapidly bringing about such an improvement in conditions as is sure to have a great effect

upon the health of the public. Information accumulates more rapidly than it can be assimilated, and much more rapidly than it can be put into practice. We still have epidemics of typhoid due to contaminated water supplies. But today we recognize their source while formerly they were mysteries. They will surely grow less as the years pass by and information is extended among the masses. Today each such epidemic is a gigantic lesson to a community, not soon forgotten and always bearing fruit in an improvement of conditions. The great usefulness of such information is already evident, for it teaches the public what to do in times of epidemics. It is quite beyond possibility to determine the value to public health of the simple discovery that the boiling of water will render harmless any typhoid or other disease bacteria it is likely to contain. Simple as this fact is it could not be realized before the bacteriologist had demonstrated that such diseases are caused by living germs. Recent study has shown, too, that faucet filters are useless in rendering water more wholesome, but that great public water filters are efficient in protecting the public from dangers of contaminated waters. The adoption of such great filters has had a noticeable effect upon the public health of European communities, and has demonstrably protected some cities from cholera epidemics which have been ravaging neighboring unprotected communities.

#### FOOD

Of the many contributions of recent science to the problem of a food supply, two topics only can be mentioned. The first is, devices for gradually equalizing the food supply. The railroads have solved the problem of food transportation, making possible a rapid distribution of food over great territories. But other scientific advances were necessary to distribute the food equally over the different seasons. Health demands a compara-

tively uniform food supply during the year, and certainly social comfort demands that our tables should not be loaded at some seasons and barren at others. This equalizing of the supply has been brought about by two discoveries, associated with bacteriology; discoveries the beginning of which extends back many years, but whose perfection has only just been reached. The determination of the fact that any food can be kept indefinitely if it can be protected from the action of micro-organisms, and the further demonstration of the efficiency of heat in destroying even the most resisting organisms, has led to the perfection of the process of canning. Today any food can be preserved indefinitely by canning, and the canning industry has assumed vast proportions. It is not only greatly modifying agricultural problems, by making it possible to preserve for future use otherwise perishable crops, but it is affecting social comfort, by extending the use of many a favorite food from seasons of plenty to seasons of scarcity. At the other extreme has been developed the cold storage plant, based upon the fact that micro-organisms grow very slowly at low temperatures, and that foods which can be sufficiently cooled may be preserved a long time. This fact again has long been known, but the experiments with the perfected cold storage plants of modern days have vastly extended the application of cold, until practically all meats and vegetables may thus be preserved. Even perishable fruits that are injured by freezing, may be preserved for months in a perfectly fresh condition, and be brought out to rejoice the palate at almost any month in the year. These two devices have largely revolutionized our city markets.

No other food product has been so much benefited by modern science as milk. The inhabitant of the large city who takes his milk regularly rarely appreciates the extreme difficulty of furnish-

ing him with this necessity of life. The growth of the city makes this difficulty all the greater, for it both increases the demand at the center, and pushes the source of supply farther away. With the increase in the difficulty of placing the needed amount of fresh milk in the center of habitation, arise innumerable evils of dilution, adulteration, and treatment with poisonous preservatives. The story of the city milk supply of past years is not a pleasant one to tell, and, beyond a doubt, a large part of that excessive mortality among city children can be attributed directly to the poor character of the milk supply. Legislation to protect the public from milk adulteration is of long standing. But the last few years have shown that there are worse things to be feared than a little extra water. The excessive death rate of young children in warm weather is now attributed largely to the mischievous bacteria in city milk, and the fact that milk has been the means of distributing typhoid bacteria, thus producing many violent epidemics of this disease, is too sadly known to require further emphasis. But although milk bacteria may thus produce trouble, one of the most striking facts of recent scientific discovery is that most milk bacteria are harmless, and that milk may contain many hundreds of millions of bacteria in each cubic inch, and yet be perfectly wholesome.

The knowledge of the diseases occasionally spread by milk has led to a study, which has brought about new methods of avoiding the evil. The end of the milk problem is not yet reached, nor is any one wise enough to predict what the future method of furnishing milk to our cities will be. Some think the product will be frozen and delivered in the form of ice cakes, a method already adopted in some European cities. Some think the milk will be dried and thus preserved until wanted, when it may again be mixed with water to form milk. This method is already in use in some lo-

calities in this country. Some think that all milk will be treated by heat, by pasteurization, and not until all dangerous bacteria are thus destroyed will it be distributed to consumers. This procedure is certainly coming into more extensive use today, for not a few communities are thus furnished with pasteurized milk, sometimes without the knowledge of the consumer. Some feel that the solution can only be met by teaching every household to pasteurize its own milk for the protection of its inmates. For a while it was thought that sterilizing milk, by heating it above boiling and destroying all bacteria, was the coming method, but this plan is practically abandoned and one would have difficulty today in finding it advocated anywhere. Others, again, believe that the solution of the milk problem is coming only by the improvement of methods of producing and furnishing milk, and they are advocating public dairy inspection for the protection of the public health. All these conflicting predictions as to the future of the milk supply are hazardous.

But although the general problem is not yet solved, the advances of the last few years have made a great improvement in the character of the milk that can be obtained in our cities. In the first place, bacteriology has brought about the substitute of the glass bottle as a milk receptacle instead of the old milk can. This change means much, since the old milk can concealed dirt while the glass bottle discloses it, thereby reducing it. The milk producer sometimes complains of the necessity of using bottles, for it makes him so much more trouble. But this trouble means more care and a better product for the consumer. The emphasis placed upon the need for a better product has brought about the establishment of a growing number of dairies that furnish milk under conditions absolutely beyond reproach. These so-called "sanitary dairies" are usually not far from the cities, and within them every care is

taken to avoid all possibility of criticism. The cows are frequently inspected by veterinarians and none except those in perfect health are allowed to remain in the milk-giving herd. Exceptional care is taken to keep the barn and the cows in the highest state of cleanliness by frequent groomings and washings. In some cases the milking is not done in the cow barn, but in separate milking rooms that are actually kept as clean as kitchens. The milk cans and all milk vessels are daily sterilized by steam. The milk is artificially cooled to near freezing immediately after being drawn from the cow, and kept at as low a temperature as possible until it is delivered to the customer. The clothing of the milkers and all attendants is cleaned and sterilized each day. No person who has a suspicion of contagious illness is allowed to have anything whatever to do with the handling of the milk. With such methods and precautions these dairies produce a milk that is beyond suspicion, containing but few bacteria and these of the harmless types. But for all this care the dairyman must, of course, be paid, and such sanitary milk is sold in market at a price much higher than that of the ordinary milk supply. For this reason there is only a limited demand for such milk and these dairies are yet few in number and contribute only a small share of the city milk supply.

Another very recent device for reaching the same end is the production of "certified milk." For this purpose a board of commissioners undertakes to make such examination and analysis of the milk of any milkman desiring it as will justify them in certifying to its character. Chemical and bacteriological analyses are periodically made and sometimes visits are unexpectedly paid to the dairies furnishing the milk, so that the board may determine if the conditions are satisfactory. If all conditions are properly met, the milkman is given a certificate to use upon his bottles, which as-

tures the purchaser of the good character of the milk. Here, again, is involved some additional expense which must, of course, be paid for in the end by the consumer who benefits by the superior character of the milk; but the increased security is worth the cost.

All of these new methods and suggestions have had the effect of decidedly improving the character of the milk placed upon the market. Plenty of poor milk is still found; poor babies still suffer and hundreds die each summer from its use. But the evils of poor milk are now understood; good milk is more obtainable, and surely we are progressing toward the final solution of good milk for our cities.

#### EXCRETIONS

One of the most striking achievements of recent bacteriological science is its newly discovered method of disposing of sewage. Sewage, of all substances, is the most dangerous to the public health. Bacteriological science has laid one bugaboo of earlier years, since it has shown the folly of the great fear of sewer gas. Sewage itself is dangerous and a source of disease, but sewer gas does not produce disease and cannot. Millions of dollars are spent in expensive plumbing to protect our homes from a trace of sewer gas, which is comparatively harmless, and then we drink sewage contaminated water, which is deadly. The pointing out of this fact is one of the beneficent acts of modern science. The sewage of a city contains the germs of hosts of infectious diseases, though sewer gas contains none of them. Until a satisfactory means of disposing of sewage is devised, the problem of city life cannot be regarded as solved. The failure to care properly for such material was responsible for the high death rate in the cities of earlier centuries, while the more satisfactory way of disposing of it now is one of the chief factors in the lower death rate of modern times. But the

disposition of sewage has been no easy matter. Where cities have been on the banks of streams the sewage has been poured into them, to the great detriment of other communities below on the same streams. As the cities have grown the streams have become viler and viler until the nuisance has, in many places, become intolerable. Where the community is on the ocean, the sewage is poured into the sea. While this is not so bad as the pollution of the streams, still, our bays and harbors cease to be things of beauty and become eyesores of pollution. Within the memory of many the waters of New York harbor were clear and sparkling, but now nothing is much more repulsive than this sewage contaminated body of water. Other seaboard cities are fast approaching the same condition and are ruining their own location by polluting their waters with sewage.

What to do with this sewage has long been a problem. To burn it is impracticable, since it contains too much water. The fact that it contains a large amount of highly nutritious organic matter has led to its use as a fertilizer upon so-called sewage farms. In these farms this waste product is allowed to flow upon the soil and feed the crops. This plan seems almost ideal, since at the same time it utilizes and disposes of a waste product. But while successful in certain European cities, this method of sewage disposal has proved a failure in the United States. The people of our cities use so much water that the sewage is too highly diluted to be handled by the crops on sewage farms. Sewage farming, ideal as it seems, cannot solve the sewage problem for this country. Chemical means for destroying the organic ingredients in the sewage have been adopted with some, although very limited, success, and while this method has been, and still is, in use it is recognized as failing to meet the needs of the case.

A new method of disposing of sewage

has been found that promises to be more efficient and successful than any of the others. This is the bacterial treatment of sewage. This means of getting rid of sewage is based upon the wonderful power possessed by bacteria in bringing about the decomposition of nearly all kinds of organic product. Bacteria are capable of growing with great rapidity, and while so doing they act upon the substances that constitute their food, causing them to undergo chemical decomposition. Bacteria are, indeed, nature's great agents for pulling to pieces the bodies which have been built up by animals and plants. In this they are at all times engaged in the soil, in the waters of the world, and, indeed, in every place where decomposing and putrefying remains of animal and vegetable substances are found. It is their agency that keeps the soil from becoming clogged with organic substances. It is their agency that, in time, purifies rivers of the sewage poured into them, for, even when badly contaminated, a river will, after a while, become pure again. The bacteria reduce the organic bodies to much simpler substances, and the products of this destruction are of a totally different nature from the original organic substances. They are mostly gases or liquids, or some solid bodies that are easily dissolved in water. If a piece of paper is decomposed, it is practically all converted into gases that pass off into the atmosphere. If a piece of meat is decomposed, it is partly converted into inoffensive gases which are dissipated into the air, and partly into chemical bodies, called nitrates, that are quite harmless and are easily dissolved in water. In the same way most of the offensive material poured into the river with sewage is converted into gases, or substances easily dissolved in water, without injuring it in appearance or wholesomeness. Such a destruction and dissipation of organic matter is constantly taking place in rivers, streams, soil and in

the ocean, and it is this that keeps the surface of the world clean and fresh.

Why cannot these same little microbes be called upon to aid us in disposing of our sewage? Not only can they be thus utilized, but they actually are now called into play for this purpose, in a number of cities that have adopted the most modern and successful method of dealing with this troublesome material. There is no difficulty in obtaining the bacteria necessary for the purpose, for the sewage itself always contains them in great numbers, and they are always at their work of destruction while in the sewers of the city. It is only necessary, therefore, to give them a proper opportunity to complete their action under favorable conditions. These favorable conditions have been discovered, partly by accident, and are now utilized. There are two ways of treating sewage so as to facilitate its destruction by bacteria. One is to receive it in large underground tanks, where it is partially protected from contact with the air, and through which the sewage floats slowly, remaining in the tank at least two days before it is allowed to escape. But the more common method is by the use of what are called *filter beds*. These are large, shallow and open reservoirs. The bottom of these is filled with coarse material, like clinkers, to increase the amount of exposed surface. Upon this filter bed the sewage flows, and is allowed to stand for a couple of days or more, during which time it undergoes a great change in its character. This change is due to the decomposition action of the bacteria present, which rapidly act upon the organic matter in the sewage and break it to pieces. Much of the material is quickly converted into such gases as carbon dioxide, ammonia, hydrogen, etc., and as fast as these gases form they pass off into the air and disappear. The rest of the material also undergoes changes that convert it, first into simple substances, and finally into soluble matter. As

soon as this has occurred the soluble matter dissolves in the water and the water begins to be clear. After a couple of days the contents of the filter beds lose their offensive appearance and odor, and may then be drawn off into neighboring streams without injury, and without producing any of the contamination that would have been caused by the original sewage. Thus the offensive and troublesome matter in the sewage has actually been destroyed by bacterial action. It has either been dissipated into the air, or been converted into a perfectly harmless form, flowing away

through the river to the ocean which it can no longer injure or contaminate. The filter beds, in the meanwhile, are filled with another lot of sewage and the process goes on again. The term filter bed is an unfortunate one, for it conveys the impression that the sewage is really filtered. The filters built for public water supplies actually filter the water, but in the "filter beds" for sewage treatment there is no filtering whatsoever. The water that flows from these sewage beds after the bacteria have finished their action upon it is so thoroughly purified that it is actually drunken with impunity.

# How the American Boy Is Educated

## Education and the American Boy

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**B**EFORE entering on our survey of the American boy at school, at home, on the playground, and under the various supplementary educative influences which play upon him during his period of plasticity, it will be well for us to define our terms, and also to take account of some of the background conditions and influences that make the education of the American boy peculiarly interesting, as well as different from the education of every other boy in the world. I purpose, therefore, to devote a preliminary chapter to thus clearing the ground, and to stating what in general we mean by the American boy and by his education.

First, as to the American boy himself. We may define him simply as a boy, any boy, whether native born or foreign

born, who lives in America. This is perhaps enough to suggest that he is endowed with a peculiar quality, common to all, both native and foreign born, and that he occurs in the greatest imaginable diversity. The differences between East and West, Mulberry Bend and Murray Hill, the mountains and the prairie, the coast and the interior; the differences between the Puritan and the Cavalier, the Scotch-Irish and the Quaker, the Italian padrone, and the Scandinavian wheat farmer, are not less marked than are the differences between American boys: and yet there is a common something that binds them all together, and makes, or tends to make, the most widely differing American boys more like other American boys than are any un-American boys. This something is not merely the

fruit of the common school, whose common quality is typified by the common flag that flies over it; but it is also that thing which makes the American school possible, and has made it possible from the beginning. What is that thing?

To answer this question adequately would require, I suppose, nothing less than a definition of Americanism. For our purpose it can perhaps be summed up in two words: one, the word of Emerson, "*America spells opportunity*"; the other, *enterprise*, both cause and effect of opportunity. What makes the true American boy is, I fancy, the consciousness that he has a chance for himself, and the impulse to make the most of his chance. It is the testimony of an English observer (important, if true) that "with American pupils the enthusiasm for learning is intense. Nervous, impatient of concentration, independent in discipline as the American boy is, his deficiencies are more than compensated for by his desire for education as such. In my examination of schools of different types and proficiency, I never stumbled across a really idle boy." American parents and teachers have perhaps gone farther in their observations and fared worse, yet no one will dispute the general point: the impulse of Americanism exists in the American boy. It is the resultant, doubtless, of forces that lie deeper than education. Of its source the American boy might truly say, as Lowell said of his love for litera-

ture: "I gat it in my mither's wame." The spirit of the immigrant (both in earlier and in later times), of the pioneer, of the fighter, of the explorer and subduer of the forests and streams, of the prairies, mountains and mines of a new world, is still quick and still a force to be reckoned with.

The general attitude of the American people towards education, and the close relation that in America exists and is consciously maintained between education and success in life, both individual and national, are matters which I must now go into at some length, since they condition and explain much that follows regarding educational activity both in the schools and outside of them.

We in America are so used to our system of popular education—to paying for it, profiting by it, complaining about its real or fancied defects and solemnly believing in it as a part of our national creed, that we are grieved when (as has actually occurred) Englishmen in England simply refuse to believe American lecturers on American education; and we are surprised that Englishmen when they do believe are so astounded by our popular system, and by the popular attitude toward it. A prominent Englishman has spoken of the intense belief of the Americans in the education of the masses; of their feeling that their country cannot progress and prosper without it; that if the people are to be raised it must be done

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This is the first of a series of nine articles on "How the American Boy Is Educated." In this series Mr. Hervey will undertake to give a picture of the various and contrasting conditions under which the American boy is being built into a man through education. Various kinds of schools—public and private, large and small, country and city, day and evening, liberal and technical, low and high, from the kindergarten up to the college and university—will be glanced at, and some contrasts noted as to material equipment, teaching forces, curricula, methods and results. Incidentally conditions in America will be compared with those abroad. The vital part played by home and church, playground and workbench, will be touched on. Some pressing problems, such as, How the raw, foreign-born material is to be wrought into the finished American product; How the American boy, whatever his condition (in mind, body or estate) is to be given a chance for himself through education; How the demands of utility and culture are to be harmonized; and How, through education, worship and religion can be strengthened to meet the strain that modern life puts upon them,—these and other problems will be considered, less by way of theorizing, than of enumerating and describing the forces actually at work, in the schools and elsewhere, toward a happy solution.



through the medium of education; that in the long run it is far more economical to educate the people than to have to support the prisons, workhouses, etc.; in short, that education is their safety and salvation. "Nothing impressed me more," writes an Oxford professor after an extended tour, "than the earnestness with which the citizens of the great republic, of every description, have taken to education. Not only is it the conviction of all the more thoughtful men and women in the States that the people having all the power of the state in their hands must be educated in order to secure and preserve political and social stability, but a belief in the necessity for education so pervades all the masses that the evening schools are crowded in all the large towns. This wholesome contagion spreads even to the motley crowds of immigrants who arrive every week from the Old World. No sooner do they find some sort of a home and something to do than they call on the heads of the public day schools to arrange for the education of their children, and for their own education in the evening. I have heard of instances of the parents having called on the school teacher before they had even laid down their packs or found lodgings for their families." "To an extent which it is hard on an Englishman to realize," writes another, "the Americans are determined that their educational system shall be thoroughly efficient, and that where efficiency and economy are in apparent conflict, it is economy which must give way."

It is worth while to note at this point that the contrast between America and England in respect of popular education is far greater than that between America and either Germany or France. In England every victory for popular education must be won in spite of the fierce opposition of vested interests. Ancient foundations preëempt the ground. Popular education is a young and tender plant, overshadowed by jealous and powerful neighbors. To attempt in England to

plow a straight furrow or cultivate a garden plot for popular education is like trying to raise potatoes among the ramifying roots of an old and still vigorous orchard. In Germany the belief in popular education was born in the travail of the Napoleonic wars; in France a like belief was crystallized by the disaster of 1871: in England the victory will be completely won, if ever, when the decline of industrial supremacy shall have taught its humiliating lesson. In America, as every school boy knows, popular education, universal and free, is the corner stone of the republic, and of every commonwealth composing it. In education, as in politics and in religion, replying to the nations who may say, "With a great sum obtained I this freedom," America may proudly and humbly say, "But I was born free."

To account for this present popular belief and enthusiasm solely on historic grounds, would be to overlook several important and interesting phenomena, which it is worth our while now to examine.

The popular belief in popular education is a complex of many experiences, had by many people high and low, rich and poor. Woven into it are considerations, conscious and unconscious, selfish and unselfish: considerations of immediate personal gain, ease, or position, and considerations of the purest public spirit, and of the farthest public foresight.

Of unconscious influences one of the strongest is doubtless, the mere fact of personal experience: we tend to believe in that to which we are accustomed—that which has the sanction of immemorial usage; we have gone to the public schools as did our fathers and grandfathers, and we believe in them—in spite of what they did not do for us. When consciously-wrought reasons come to be assigned they are sometimes pitifully crass and low, but they are none the less genuine and efficient. The washerwoman wishes her daughter to study Latin for the undisguised reason that Latin is to her at

the farthest imaginable remove from utility. "I have observed," says another lowly and hard working mother, "that to have an education is the best way to get rid of having to work," and she steams and drudges in the kitchen all through the summer vacation while her "educated" daughters sit on the piazza, and "dress" for supper. All of which is of a piece with the objection to the study of Greek made by the member of a school committee in a suburban city, that "there are so few Greeks here it doesn't pay"; of a piece, too, with the answer of the elderly negro to President Gilman:

"Why do you study Latin?"

"Because I am going to be a preacher and I want to know how to read the Bible in the original tongue."

"But the Bible wasn't written in Latin, was it?"

"No, sir; but somehow if you know Latin you get nigher back to it."

Such reasons are on a par with those of certain school teachers who are fain to continue their liberal and professional studies after they have begun to teach, not because impelled by love of knowledge but because driven by official regulations which make continued study the *sine qua non* of continued professional promotion.

What may be called the industrial motive is probably the most widely efficient of all the motives playing on the American boy towards producing in him practical belief in education. The whole industrial world seems to have conspired with educational institutions to place a premium on education. The same is true of France and Germany, where the road to advancement, even in the trades, lies through the completion of courses in regular or "continuation" schools. But while on the continent such regulations have solidified into laws,—sometimes laws of the trades union, sometimes laws of the state,—in America the regulations are for the most part less formal than real. There are signs, however, that the foreign system is gaining ground.

If we turn now from the individual to the mass point of view, it naturally appears that just as the industrial value and success of the individual depends on his education, so the combined industrial prosperity of the nation depends on the education of its citizens. This does not of course mean that the present position of the United States in the markets and industries of the world is due to the superior schooling of those who have made the country what it is,—and this for the simple reason that those leaders did not have such schooling. But it does mean—and this is universally realized and admitted—that, while education can create neither an individual nor a nation, it can and does make both more efficient than they otherwise could be, and that in particular, after a certain stage of development of natural resources, education is absolutely essential to guide, regulate and maintain further development. As President Roosevelt has said: "Education may not make a nation, but a nation would certainly be ruined without it."

This true and terse summing up of the sphere of education as regards national success is even truer of moral than it is of material matters, and it grows more urgently true with every advance in material prosperity. The moral problem becomes increasingly complex with every advance in civilization. There are many who, when they say "I believe in education," are thinking of these problems, and of the power which resides in a full panoplied education to solve them.

Closely akin to this is the point of view of the social reformer, the idealist, and the philosopher—prophets of the modern world—to whom a vision has come of man as he might be, and as he shall be on this earth, and of human society as it must be one day, unless all visions are to fail. To whom or to what agency can the idealist look for the realization of his ideals? There is abundant evidence on every hand in every community, that the main reliance of thoughtful men is in-

creasingly placed on education. This was not always the case. Philanthropy has, in the history of progress, sometimes meant alms, sometimes agitation, sometimes revolts, revolutions, reformations. Today it largely means the education which underlies all these and tends to replace them. The practical reformer is today the *former*,—who is less ready to head an agitation than, for example, to found a social settlement.

It is a notable fact, and one which has never been so widely and so practically recognized as during the past twenty years, that when any change is to be inwrought into the fabric of a people's life, the method must be an educational method, and the means, the agencies of education. The various "campaigns of education," and in particular the recently founded Religious Education Association, are instances of this. How, indeed, can any person or any group or society of persons be permanently influenced and molded except by education? Punishment, whether in the home or in the state, is efficient only so far as it is educative. Preaching completely accomplishes its object only when it follows the normal course of the education process, reaching the will through the intelligence, the sensibilities and the emotions; reaching the intelligence through the normal avenues of approach; and above all recognizing that mere preaching is but a partial factor and must be supplemented by those institutional forces that work, silently and unobserved, upon the springs of conduct, that guide the course of action, and that wear deep the channels of habit. Social reforms are brought about less by legal prohibition than by constructive education. To take a familiar example, education attacks intemperance front and flank and rear,—first, by undermining the appetite for drink through food chosen, prepared and served according to the precepts of the cooking school; secondly by sapping the demand for low society by developing the taste for elevating inter-

course, and, thirdly, by toning up the general moral system through the presentation of ideals.

Education is the efficient way of accomplishing the ideal ends of humanity. It is the most modern application of the apostolic dictum, "Overcome evil with good." It is the application of law to the agencies of human betterment. In an age and in a country in which there exists an instinct for progress and a sense of scientific method, it is but natural that there should also be found a passion for education.

What is education? For we have not yet answered the question which confronted us at the beginning. We have seen that it was a something that looms large before the American boy at the outset of his career; something that is eagerly sought by the immigrant and that is as eagerly looked to by the captain of industry, as by the prophet of society. But what education is in itself, considered apart from its value to society and to the individual, is still to be defined.

What education is will most clearly stand forth against the background of what it is not. Education is not, as we have already said, creation or heredity; it cannot take the place of original capacity; even instruction and training can not make of a boy more than he originally had it in him to become. Birth is a gift, and the only gift; all else must be won, and won by, not for, the individual,—won by the use of original powers which can not be added to, though by abuse and disuse they may be subtracted from. Neither is education knowledge or information, a point which is sufficiently made clear by the popular definition of pedant—one who has made way with his brains to make room for his learning. Still less is it training or skill, for a brute can be trained, and the most unschooled and ignorant person can acquire skill. The view is no longer tenable that education is alone or chiefly the discipline of faculty—a kind of whetstone for the sharpening of dull wits,

(though no conception of what education is dies harder than this) ; for there is no such thing as a human faculty considered apart from its particular use ; and since a man can not remember in general, image in general, think, feel or will in general, or be good in general, it follows that he can not be trained in general. One does not train a dog in general but in reference to specific activities and a specific environment, and the training of a man does not,—to mention a specific case,—consist in making him good, but in making him *good for something*. The fallacy of the view we are rejecting further appears in this: if education meant discipline and little or nothing else, human faculties being the same in France, Germany and America, the course of education for the purpose of disciplining or sharpening those faculties would also be identical in all three nations. The memory of American boys would be better trained on the French irregular verbs than on the English, and the topics in history for the German lad would be chosen less for their bearing on his love for the German fatherland than for their supposed powers to sharpen his historic wits. Education has always had and must ever have a national bent. Each American boy is educated not merely in view of his native capacities, interests, and susceptibilities, but in view of the country he lives in, and of the social system that environs him and that is as much a part of him as the air in his lungs or the blood in his veins. The first argument against limiting education to the three R's (and we shall meet several other such arguments before we are done with educating the American boy), is that the "three R" system is defensible only on the doubly false assumption that education is the whetting of the powers and that this whetting may be sufficiently done on the ancient grindstone of the three R's.

A noble conception which is as old as Plato looks upon man as forever realizing infinite ideals, and upon education as the

process of their realization, "the process of giving to the body and to the soul all the beauty and all the perfection of which they are capable." The peculiar value of this inspiring view lies in its suggestion of the limitless possibilities of human development—never fully realized, but forever approaching realization. But this conception like all others which include the individual and omit his environment, leaves us to discover for ourselves that no individual can attain beauty and perfection in himself except by taking up into himself and making a part of himself that world of nature and of man without which no man can wholly live, and without adjustment to which no man can be completely educated.

Towards this insight we are helped by the doctrine of evolution, which teaches that life is the adjustment of inner to outer relations, and that education, whereby man is prepared for complete living, is the adjustment of a human being to his environment. And since the natural environment of man is not unintelligible, but bears the imprint of the same Reason that created his own spirit ; and since, furthermore, the human environment is not strange and foreign to him, but bone of his bone and flesh of his flesh, each individual, therefore, can and must go out into the world of man and nature to find himself ; the environment is a spiritual environment ; and "education" in President Butler's comprehensive and inspiring phrase "must mean the gradual adjustment of a human being to the spiritual possessions of the race."

The word "adjustment" as here used is pregnant with meaning ; and much in what follows hinges on an adequate understanding of that meaning. It may therefore be briefly explained. Every human being that comes into the world is more or less preadjusted to it, the lower animals more, man less perfectly. At the outset "the mind and the world are something of a mutual fit." In all animals the period of infancy is provided for the ex-

press purpose of making this "fit" closer. If the situations to be met with in life are simple,—if the lock to be fitted with key is of the least complex pattern—the adjustments are easily made—the key is quickly filed and easily used. It does not take long for a bright dog to learn to fetch and carry or for any boy to learn to shovel gravel, or serve customers with tea and molasses. Many persons suffer arrest at this stage of simple adjustment; throughout their lives they remain simple machines, like hoes or spades, unable to adjust themselves to changed conditions, unable to turn to varied employments, ill-adjusted or non-adjusted to the opportunities and demands of parenthood, citizenship, personal pleasure and higher human life. If, however, the situations to be met in life are more complex (and there is no American boy who does not face conditions of more or less complexity) the adjustment must be correspondingly complex, and require a correspondingly long time to effect. Some men, so far from being like old-fashioned

front door keys, or hoes and shovels, are like pass keys, ready for any lock, like time locks, like printing presses. The problem of education is so to work upon the plastic human material throughout its beneficently prolonged period of infancy as to produce a splendid, conscious, human machine, which shall be perfectly adjusted to the manifold relations of life.

The problem is thus a practical problem. The final aim of education is as Ruskin says, "not to make a boy know what he did not know before, but to make him behave as he did not behave." The knowledge taught must be practical knowledge; it must throb with life. Everything in school must find its counterpart in life. The threefold test, therefore, of every school curriculum, and of every other course of education, is: Does it place the lad in possession of his spiritual heritage from the past? does it place him in touch with the civilization of the present? does it prepare him for dealing with the problems of the future?



#### LOS ANGELES VS. POLES AND WIRES

The history of most civic reforms is the same—a history of public sentiment directed by intelligent, self-appointed committees, which in the end force their opinions upon the statute books or municipal ordinances. In Los Angeles, California, the most recent reform along civic betterment lines has been the successful crusade against overhead wires and poles. The leading spirit in this movement was the Municipal League, composed of 325 of the representative citizens of Los Angeles, and, by a unique campaign, they

succeeded in arousing civic pride to the point where relief became an accomplished fact.

The conditions were such that, outside of the restricted conduit area, established in the business center, the entire residence section of the city was given over to "two competing telephone companies, three electric lighting companies, four trolley companies, and two telegraph companies." The result was that the poles frequently numbered eighteen to the 350-foot block, while there were corners in the best residence district

where twenty-five poles might be counted within a radius of 100 feet. Trees were destroyed; the appearance of the city was marred, real estate values depreciated;

ferred to by the apparently appropriate titles: *Mansions in the Skies*, *Good Architecture Crucified*, *Twenty Poles to One Tree*, *The "Uglification" of Ninth Street*, *Puzzle—Find the House*, and *The Whispering Pines of Second Street*.

The league went so far as to recommend the kind of an ordinance that it believed should be adopted, with the final result that, after a fight before the board of public works, it was passed by the city council unanimously and without opposition.

The ordinance as passed, provides that the area in which it shall be unlawful to erect poles shall be extended in such manner as to add to or include within said district or districts annually two miles of street. Exception is made in the case of poles for electric light and trolley wires.

It is provided that the owners of property fronting on any street may petition that such street may be included within the "conduit district," but the city council may use its discretion, with the restriction that not more than two districts

shall be created in any one year. The idea of the framers of the ordinance was that local improvement organizations, in their desire to secure its benefits, would offer bonuses, in the shape of promises of other street beautification, for a favorable report on their petitions, and it was intended that such offers would carry weight with the municipal authorities. Whatever be the results, the Municipal League is congratulating itself upon its success thus far, and is looking forward to a more beautiful Los Angeles.



#### CLEVELAND'S BILLBOARD CODE

The city of Cleveland is to be congratulated on the completeness and extent of its building code, which, after being



THE WHISPERING PINES OF SECOND STREET  
—From *Los Angeles Municipal League Bulletin*.

home building was discouraged; and the poles and wires became recognized as one of the characteristics of Los Angeles.

The Municipal League mapped out a campaign, which it consistently carried out. Prizes were offered for the "best (worst) pictures of poles and wires," and the most symbolical of these were published in bulletins, issued from time to time. With good pictures and expressive English the sentiments of these bulletins found a hearty reception with the public. The cleverness of the illustrations and their titles could not but receive attention from both friends and foes of the movement. An excellent photograph of a residence thoroughfare veiled with poles and wires was labeled "Who Owns the Street?" Other illustrations were re-

worked out by a special commission appointed for this purpose, was passed by the city council. It takes a firm grasp of the construction of all buildings, with their proper sanitation, and the building of fences, signs and other structures within the corporation limits of the city, violations of which are to be punished by either fines or imprisonment.

To understand the extent of the regulations, and the care with which they were drafted, that section devoted to "Signs and Billboards" may be taken as an example. Divided into twenty-three parts, it begins with a definition of the matters with which it deals, and then adopts a unit of measure as a standard. This unit is "a standard piece of paper, the dimensions of which are twenty-eight inches in height by forty-two inches in length, respectively, the unit of height and the unit of length." After allowing for margins, it is enacted that no sign or billboard shall be more than ten feet high nor more than forty-two and one-half feet long. Among the other rules is mentioned the location and setting of the boards, distance from lot lines, material, sky signs, signs on buildings, supports and anchors,

swinging, projecting, illuminated, banner and fence signs, and signs on public property. These regulations are to go into effect immediately on all work hereafter to be erected or on existing work to be repaired.

Perhaps the most interesting rule from a civic betterment standpoint is that concerning signboards as nuisances. It reads: "All signboards and billboards now or hereafter to be erected on any residence street within 200 feet of any park, park boulevard or driveway, except signboards not exceeding a one-sheet board in area, used for advertising the sale or renting of the property on which they are located, and all signs on buildings on any residence street within said 200 feet, except signs advertising the business within, or signs used to advertise the selling or renting of the property, are hereby declared to be public nuisances and any such first described signboards or billboards now existing shall be removed by the owners thereof within thirty days after the passage of this ordinance, and upon failure thereof the same shall be torn down under the direction of the Inspector of Buildings."



TWENTY POLES TO ONE TREE.

SIXTEENTH AND GEORGIA.

—From *Los Angeles Municipal League Bulletin*.

## CIVIC COOPERATION

An interesting development of the civic improvement movement is the inauguration of a bureau of information especially designed to serve the constituency so largely represented at Chautauqua assemblies and among reading clubs.

During several sessions the civic bureau of information has been a feature of the Assembly at Chautauqua, New York. In modified form similar service has been rendered throughout the year in connection with conventions and other gatherings.

For the enlargement of this work by mail and at conventions and institutes Civic Cooperation offers its services to those interested in the betterment of community life. With headquarters at Chautauqua during July and August, and at Chicago the remainder of the year, this bureau will constantly supply material to meet particular conditions.

Civic Cooperation aims to reach the smaller communities and the smaller units—the schools, clubs and neighborhoods—of the larger cities; its patrons will be brought into touch with accessible sources of information, the best methods, and significant developments. Special attention is given to club programs, library work, and civics in the schools.

The annual subscription of one dollar entitles to all practicable services, including coupons exchangeable for information and printed matter. A noteworthy feature is the absence of competition with other organizations. The particular form of service is not offered elsewhere, and

through this clearing house all organizations and interests may be aided. Correspondence should be addressed to Civic Cooperation, E. G. Routzahn, secretary, 5711 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago.

Among the features of the present season are the arrangement of the Cleveland home gardening plans for use by schools and clubs in any town, and the preparation of civic material for school use.



## FROM THE FIELD

A \$5,000 electrolier to be placed at the junction of Main, Huron and Genesee Streets, Buffalo, New York, has been accepted from the Society for Beautifying Buffalo by the board of aldermen.

"A Year's Discussion and Development," Secretary C. R. Woodruff's annual review presented at the Chicago meeting of the National Municipal League, has been reprinted in pamphlet form No. 11 of the publications of the National Municipal League, Philadelphia.

The American Civic Association, in session at St. Louis, unanimously adopted the following resolution:

Whereas, Plans for a "model city" at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition which would serve as an object lesson to the people in civic art and civic functions have been relegated to the form of a so-called "model street";

And whereas, The American League for Civic Improvement and the American Park and Outdoor Art Association inaugurated, endorsed and advertised the project of a "model city" and worked for its consummation upon official representation that it would be established,

Resolved, That we respectfully request the Louisiana Purchase Exposition authorities to change the name "model street" to "municipal exhibit street," which more accurately describes the valuable exhibits contributed by Minneapolis and St. Paul, New York City, Kansas City, and San Francisco.

## CIVIC PROGRESS PROGRAMS

## STREET DECORATION

Enough program material is supplied for weekly sessions, though selections may be made for monthly or fortnightly meetings.

1. Roll-call: Each member can suggest some particular improvement in the streets of his own town or city,—add a tree at one point, remove a sign here, extend the sidewalk there, etc.
2. Correlation: Appoint some person to outline briefly the inter-relation of the civic topics in the September CHAUTAUQUAN: Civic Lessons from Europe, Bacteri-

ology and Social Welfare, Social Progress in Europe, items in Survey of Civic Betterment, Highways and Byways, etc., etc.

3. Summary: Epitomize article, Street Decoration, by Milo Roy Maltbie, in September CHAUTAUQUAN.
4. Symposium: Brief papers on "Public Art in Other Lands." See Municipal art in Paris, C. M. Robinson, *Harper's*, 103: 200-207 (July, 1901); Municipal art in Italy, Allen French, *New Eng. Mag.*, 18:



- 33-52 (March, '98); Art effort in British cities, C. M. Robinson, *Harper's*, 105; 787-96 (Oct., '02); Municipal art in the Netherlands, Allen French, *New England Magazine*, 18:267-268 (May, '98).
5. Address: "The Town's Opportunity:" how it may do more than the city for a more beautiful American life. See Town's opportunity, C. M. Robinson. (Send four cents to Civic Cooperation, 5711 Kimbark Ave., Chicago).
  6. Map Study: Use a map of your town to point out how streets can be rearranged, "squares" laid out, a beautiful view be preserved, etc.
  7. Assigned Reading: Give each member an article to read and report upon briefly: Art in public works, Sylvester Baxter, *Century*, Oct., '02; Municipal art L. F. Perkins, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 36:516-527 (Feb., '03); Beautifying of cities, C. H. Caffin, *World's Work*, 3: 1429-1435 (Nov., '01); Prize designs for an isle of safety, F. S. Lamb, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 36:83 (Oct., '02); City of the future—a prophecy, J. B. Walker, *Cosmopolitan*, 31:473-5 (Sept., '01); The "White City" and after, Charles Zueblin, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 38:373-84 (Dec., 1903); Moral effect of public beauty, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 38:391-2 (Dec., '03); What a great city might be—a lesson from the White City, J. C. Adams, *New England Magazine* (March, '06); Harrisburg plan, Charles Zueblin, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 39:60-68 (March, '04); More beautiful public life, E. D. Mead, *New England Magazine*, 10:387-92 (June, '94); Difficulties in village improvement and how to meet them, Mrs. A. B. Gaskill, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 39:180-1 (April, '04); Municipal art, C. H. Caffin, *Harper's*, 100:655-66 (April, 1900); Making of the city, Charles Zueblin, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 38:267-75 (Nov., '03); How to beautify the city, R. Sturgis, *Scribner's*, 33:509-12 (April, '03).
  8. Symposium: Brief papers or talks on the following: (a) "Clean streets." See For a cleaner Chicago, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 37:305 (June, '03); Street cleaning and the disposal of a city's wastes, G. E. Waring, Jr., Doubleday. (b) "Overhead Wires." See Municipal year book, M. N. Baker, *Engineering News*; same, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 36:530-1 (Feb., '03). (c) "Public school grounds." See Beautifying of school grounds, Mrs. H. J. Hall, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 38:276-81 (Nov., '03). (d) "Removal of Fences." See Country Life, 4:324-26, etc., (Sept., '03). (e) "Beauty in public and private buildings." See Beautiful public buildings, *Outlook* (Feb. 2, '02); Doors and doorways, E. C. Holtzoper, *Country Life*; Best House to live in, J. W. Dow, *World's Work*, 7:4291-4309 (Jan., '04); Municipal aesthetics from a legal standpoint, *Municipal Affairs* (Dec., '99); Limitation of height of buildings, *Annals of American Academy* (July, '99); Modern business building, J. L. Steffens, *Scribner's*, 22:37-61 (July, '97). (f) "Railroad Stations." See Railroad Beautiful, C. M. Robinson, *House and Garden* (April, '04), also in pamphlet, George H. Daniels, New York City; Railroad station improvement, Mrs. A. E. McCrea, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 39:368 (June, '04); Railroad station grounds in How to plan the home grounds, S. Parsons, Jr., Doubleday. (g) "Outdoor advertising." See Fight against advertising disfigurement, A. R. Kimball, *Scribner's*, 29:101-105 (Jan., '01); Abuses of public advertising, C. M. Robinson, *Atlantic*, 93:289-299 (March, '04); Regulation of public advertising, *Nation*, 78:163-4 (March 3, '04); War against the billboard, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 37:304 (June, '03); Against the billboard, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 38:89-90, (Nov., '03). (h) "Trees in town and city." See Plea for trees and parks in cities, Louis Windmüller, *Forum*, 29:336-346 (May, 1900); Vegetation a remedy for the summer heat of cities, Stephen Smith, *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, 54:433-450 (Feb., '99); Tree planting on streets and highways, W. F. Fox (J. B. Lyon Co.); Fruit trees for ornamental purposes, J. H. McFarland, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 39:280 (May, '04).
  9. Paper: The Village Street: how to make it neat, wholesome and altogether pleasing, and yet remain unlike a city street.
  10. Paper: "What the Children Can Do." See Pledge of the Austin Clean City Club, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 36:82 (Oct., '02); Junior civics in St. Louis, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 37:306 (June, '03); Juvenile street-cleaning leagues, in Street cleaning, G. E. Waring, pp. 177-186, Doubleday, What is Junior Civics? E. G. Routzahn, *CHAUTAUQUAN*, 37:515-19 (August, '03); current issues of *Boys and Girls*, Ithaca, N. Y.

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## See Also:

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- "Subways." "Streets," etc., in New International Encyclopedia for clear and concise statements of many features needful for satisfactory service.
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# News Summary and Current Events Programs

## DOMESTIC

May 2.—Ex-President Cleveland, in a lecture at Princeton, explains the exercise of his powers at the time of the Chicago strike in 1894.

4.—Thirty-first General Conference of the M. E. church convenes at Los Angeles, Cal.

7.—Payment is made by Secretary Shaw of \$45,000,000 for Panama Canal property.

8.—Moros kill 2 officers and 15 men of the 17th U. S. Infantry in Mindanao, P. I.

9.—President Roosevelt appoints General George W. Davis as governor of the American zone at Panama. The War Department is to have full charge of the digging of the canal.

14.—Mrs. John A. Logan is made acting president of the American Red Cross Society, Clara Barton resigned.

16.—Governor Blanchard of Louisiana, in his inaugural, pledges the state to protect the negro.

18.—Following investigation by the New York Police Department, the Western Union Telegraph Company orders that no more racing news shall be sent over its wires except in the form of ordinary messages.

20.—The South Atlantic squadron is ordered to Tangier to rescue Perdicaris, the American citizen, held for ransom by Moroccan bandits.

25.—The Supreme Court of the District of Columbia acquits General James N. Tyner and Harrison J. Barrett, accused of conspiracy in the recent Post Office scandals. President Truesdale of the D. L. & W. R.R. disclaims any knowledge of an agreement between the coal carrying roads to control prices.

28.—The commissioners appointed by congress to recommend legislation for the encouragement of the American merchant marine, meets at Baltimore.

31.—The United States Supreme Court decides that congress has the power to legislate for the Philippine Islands and that the constitutional guarantee of trial by jury does not extend there.

June 1.—Tenth annual conference on arbitration convenes at Lake Mohonk, New York.

6.—Fresh labor troubles in Cripple Creek mining district of Colorado. Explosion kills twelve non-union miners and injures seven, at Independence, Colo.

8.—Battle between miners and militia at Dunneville, Colo., two miners killed and fourteen wounded. Martial law is proclaimed in Teller County.

10.—Governor Pennypacker, of Pennsylvania, names Attorney-General Philander C. Knox as the successor of the late Senator M. S. Quay.

14.—United Confederate Veterans meet at Nashville.

15.—Excursion steamer *General Slocum*, with about 1,800 passengers, mostly women and children, is burned in the East River at New York City, and 1,000 perish.

21.—Republican National Convention, at Chicago, adopts platform.

24.—Paul Morton, of Illinois, is named as Secretary of the Navy, vice William H. Moody, resigned, to take the portfolio of Attorney-General. Victor H. Metcalf, of California, is appointed Secretary of Commerce and Labor

in place of George B. Cortelyou, resigned to be Chairman of the National Republican Committee.

30.—National Prohibition Convention, at Indianapolis, nominates Dr. Silas C. Swallow, of Harrisburg, Pa., for president and George W. Carroll, of Texas, for vice-president. Secretary Shaw, in his annual report, shows a United States Treasury surplus of \$13,000,000 and a deficit of \$36,750,000 for the fiscal year.

July 5.—Populists nominate Thomas E. Watson, of Georgia, for president and Thomas H. Tribbles, of Nebraska, for vice-president.

9.—Democratic convention nominates Judge Alton B. Parker, of New York, for president.

10.—Henry G. Davis, ex-senator from West Virginia, is nominated for vice-president by the Democrats.

12.—A meat famine is threatened by the strike of 50,000 employes of the so-called Beef Trust, as a result of wage reduction.

13.—Two hundred persons are killed and property worth \$2,000,000 is destroyed near Manila, P. I., by a cloudburst.

21.—Missouri Democrats nominate Joseph W. Folk, of St. Louis, for Governor on an "anti-boodling" platform.

25.—The allied trades, of Chicago, to assist the butchers, call a sympathetic strike. The total number out of work is now over 30,000. Eighty-one mills, with 25,000 operatives, are idle in a textile strike at Fall River, Mass.

26.—Thomas Taggart, of Indiana, is chosen chairman of the National Democratic Committee. Thomas Morison is elected president of the United States Steel Corporation, vice Charles M. Schwab resigned. Martial law is declared at an end at Cripple Creek, Colo.

27.—President Roosevelt is formally notified of his nomination for president of the United States, at his summer home at Oyster Bay, Long Island. Chicago packers refuse to negotiate with the strikers. Decree of foreclosure against the properties of the United States Shipbuilding Company in favor of several New York trust companies is signed by Judge Platt, of the United States Circuit Court in Connecticut.

28.—Comptroller Tracewell, of the Treasury, decides that the Panama Canal zone is not a part of the United States, but until action by congress, is under the control of the president.

29.—Meat strike is extended from Chicago to New York. Federal grand jury returns indictments against seven men for the *Slocum* disaster.

## FOREIGN.

May 1.—Russians, under Gen. Sassulitch, numbering 30,000, are badly defeated by 50,000 Japanese under Gen. Kuroki, being driven out of Kulien-Cheng, with the loss of 28 guns and 800 men, the Japanese loss being 700.

2.—Japanese troops, under Gen. Kuroki, continue their success of May 1, driving the Russians from Hamatan, capturing 20 guns, 20 officers and many men.

3.—Russians foil attempt to close the entrance of Port Arthur, by sinking the five ships sent into the harbor by Admiral Togo.

4.—Russians stop and search mails of a British steamer near Port Said. Panama

Assembly rejects the gold standard. Canal zone is transferred to the United States.

5.—President Castro is made dictator for one year by act of Venezuelan congress. Japan borrows \$50,000,000, half in the United States and half in England. Russia arranges for loan of \$200,000,000 in Paris. Gen. Sassulitch, defeated on May 1, is relieved of his command.

6.—Japanese, by seizing railway, isolate Port Arthur. Crisis is imminent between Peru and Brazil on account of occupation of disputed acre territory by the former.

8.—Russians abandon New-Chwang, before Japanese advance. British, after hard fighting, defeat 1,500 Tibetans at Kharola Pass.

10.—Russians restore their railroad connections. Cotton declared contraband by Russia.

12.—Russians destroy their fortifications at Dalny. Loan of \$50,000,000 by Japan is oversubscribed. Russia announces loan of \$150,000,000.

13.—Japanese lose torpedo-boat near Dalny.

15.—Japanese armored cruiser is crippled by torpedoes at Dalny. Russians claim Chinese are in league with Japanese. Japanese battleship *Hatsuse*, at Port Arthur, is blown up by Russian mines, with loss of 450. Japanese cruiser *Yoshino*, rammed by the cruiser *Kasuga*, sinks with 200 men.

16.—Japanese cruiser *Miyako* strikes Russian mine in Kerr Bay and is blown up.

17.—Japanese are in full control of Liao-Tung peninsula, with the exception of Port Arthur.

18.—China proclaims Chinanfu, Weishien, Choutsun and Chowcheen ports of commerce open to the world.

19.—United States sends warships to Tangier on hearing that Ion Perdicaris, a naturalized American, and his step-son have been kidnapped and held for ransom by brigands in Morocco.

21.—France recalls her Ambassador to the Holy See as a result of the Pope's protest against recent visit of President Loubet to the King of Italy. General Stoessel's troops, in a sortie from Port Arthur, defeat Japanese with loss of 1,000. Russian cruiser *Bogatyr*, stranded on a rock, is destroyed to prevent her capture by the enemy.

22.—Morocco agrees to ransom Ion Perdicaris and his stepson from their captors.

25.—Reports of popular uprisings and the hanging of more than 600 nihilists throughout Russia.

26.—After desperate fighting on both sides, Japanese drive Russians out of Kin-Chow to vicinity of Port Arthur. Japanese prize court at Sascho refuses to surrender cargoes captured after outbreak of hostilities. Action of the French government, in recalling the ambassador at the Holy See, is approved by the Chamber of Deputies.

29.—Russians abandon Dalny, the Japanese taking possession.

31.—France offers to use her good offices for the release of Ion Perdicaris held by brigands in Morocco.

June 1.—Japanese occupy Samaja.

3.—Russians, numbering 2,000, are defeated in battle near Polien-Tien. Amateur British golf championship is won by Walter J. Travis, an American.

Spain sends three warships to Morocco securing the freedom of Perdicaris.

Thibetans refuse to consider settlement of disputes with Great Britain.

6.—China complains to Russia of interference by the latter in Manchuria.

8.—Moorish bandit Raisuli is granted his demands by Morocco for the surrender of Perdicaris.

9.—Reports are current that Japan has secured the submarine boats *Fulton* and *Protector* in the United States.

11.—Russian sentiment aroused by news of sale to Japan of American-made torpedo-boats. Earl Grey succeeds Lord Minto as Governor-General of Canada.

13.—Cossacks lose 800 men in battle near Polien-Tien. Russian law, prohibiting Jews from residing within thirty miles of the Russian boundary, is repealed.

14.—Decision by King Victor Emanuel of Italy is in favor of Great Britain in Anglo-Brazilian dispute over Guiana boundary.

15.—Raisuli, the Moorish bandit, increases his demands for release of Perdicaris and Varley.

16.—Relief party of 14,000 men, under Gen. Stakelberg, on way to Port Arthur, is repulsed with loss of 800 men, Japanese loss being 1,000. Vladivostok fleet sinks five Japanese ships, including two transports with 1,000 men.

22.—Secretary Hay demands of Morocco either "Perdicaris alive or Raisuli dead."

23.—Demonstration takes place in Haiti against German and French ministers. In battle in Port Arthur harbor Japanese sink one Russian battle-ship and disable the *Sevastopol* and a cruiser.

24.—Perdicaris and Varley, released by Raisuli, arrive in Tangier.

26.—In battle near Tashi-Shiao, 40,000 Russians are reported beaten by the Japanese. Russians lose three forts at Port Arthur.

27.—Two Russian ships are destroyed by Japanese at Port Arthur. Germany sends battle-ships to Haiti.

July 3.—Scandinavian-American steamer *Norge* runs on a rock west of the Hebrides, sinking with 700 emigrants.

4.—Submarine boat *Protector* purchased by Russia at Newport News, reaches Cronstadt.

5.—The Czar appoints Prince Oblesky governor of Finland and declares Russian domination supreme.

6.—British capture Thibetan fort at Gyantse. In attempting to enter Port Arthur harbor the Japanese lose two torpedo-boat destroyers.

8.—Haiti refuses to make a commercial treaty with Germany.

9.—General Oku captures Kai-Chow.

11.—Porfirio Diaz is reelected president of Mexico. British steamer *Cheltenham* is declared a prize by the Russians at Vladivostok.

14.—Russian volunteer Black Sea fleet takes the British liner *Malacca* as a prize to Suez.

15.—Russian Black Sea fleet takes Japanese mail from the North German Lloyd steamer *Prins Heinrich*.

18.—England disavows any intention to annex Thibet so long as no other power interferes.

19.—Russians lose 2,100 men and the Japanese 1,200 in a battle near Tashi-Chiao.

20.—British authorities at Port Said detain

the Russian prize crew and the captured steamer *Malacca* "pending instructions from England."

21.—Russia accepts England's assurance that military stores found on the *Malacca* were intended for the Hong Kong naval arsenal.

23.—After capture of Hamburg-American liner *Scandia* and two British steamers in the Red Sea, Russia promises England that all will be released and no more seizures made.

25.—Russian Vladivostok squadron sinks the British steamer *Knight Commander* and captures the German steamer *Arabia* off the Japanese coast. President Castro, of Venezuela, attaches the property of the New York and Bermudez Asphalt Company.

26.—Japanese troops take possession of New-Chwang. British steamer *Chalcas*, from Tacoma, is seized by the Vladivostok squadron.

27.—British government protests against Russia's act in sinking the *Knight Commander*. Japanese report a loss of 800 in the two days' battle at Tachi-Chiao.

28.—M. Plehve, the Russian Minister of the Interior, while driving through the streets of St. Petersburg, is killed by a bomb.

29.—Russia protests against Great Britain allowing the shipment of contraband to Japan.

31.—Russian general, Count Keller, is killed near Haicheng. France announces severance of all official relations with the Vatican.

## OBITUARY.

May 1.—Antonin Dvorák, the Bohemian composer.

2.—Edward Fawcett, the American novelist.

3.—Judge Andrew Kirkpatrick, United States District Judge for New Jersey. Ex-Congressman Ashbel P. Fitch, of New York.

5.—Maurus Jókai, the Hungarian novelist.

7.—Charles Morgan McIlhenny, the American artist. Andrew McNally, head of the publishing firm of Rand, McNally & Co., of Chicago. Manuel Candamo, president of Peru.

9.—Sir Henry M. Stanley, the African explorer.

28.—United States Senator Matthew S. Quay, of Pennsylvania. Ex-Congressman Joseph B. Cheadle, of Indiana.

30.—Mayor Robert McLane, of Baltimore.

June 9.—Levi Z. Leiter, of Chicago.

15.—General Count Bobrikoff, governor of Finland, assassinated.

17.—Rear Admiral James A. Greer, U. S. N., retired.

25.—Clement Scott, the English dramatic critic. Ex-Congressman James A. McKenzie, of Kentucky.

28.—Dan. Emmett, the author of "Dixie."

29.—Col. Joseph H. Brigham, Assistant Secretary of Agriculture. Ex-United States Senator John L. Mitchell, of Wisconsin.

July 1.—George Frederick Watts, the English artist and sculptor.

3.—Dr. Theodor Herzl, president of the Zionist Congress.

6.—Ex-Chief Justice Joseph H. Lewis, of the Kentucky Court of Appeals.

7.—Brigadier-General Thomas B. Howard.

10.—General Toral, Spanish commander at Santiago at time of surrender.

11.—Right Rev. Frederick Dan Huntington, Episcopal Bishop of Central New York.

12.—Mayor Samuel M. Jones, of Toledo, Ohio.

30.—Count Keller, the Russian general is killed near Haicheng.

26.—Rear Admiral Henry Clay Taylor, U. S. N., chief of the Bureau of Navigation, dies at Copper Cliff, Ontario.

## CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS

### DOMESTIC

- Issues of the Presidential Campaign: Apportion six persons to summarize issues in the party platforms, Republican, Democratic, Prohibition, Populist, Social Democratic and Socialist Labor.
- Papers: (a) The Red Cross Society and Its Work; (b) Was President Roosevelt's Old-Age Pension Order Justifiable? (c) The Negro Question as a Dead Political Issue; (d) How Does the United States Govern the Panama Canal Zone? (e) Character Sketches of the Late Matthew Stanley Quay and Samuel M. Jones of Toledo.
- Readings: (a) From Ex-President Cleveland's article on "Government in the Chicago Strike of 1894," *McClure's* for July, and reply in *The Public*, Chicago, July 2; (b) From "Improvement in Education," by Otto Heller, Exposition Number, *World's Work* for August; (c) From "Frenzied Finance," by Thomas W. Lawson, *Everybody's* for August; (d) From "Educational Progress of the Year," *The Outlook*, August 6.
- Discussion: The Civil War in Colorado. Select two persons to represent miners and employees, two more to represent the

military and civil authorities before the club as tribunal.

### FOREIGN

- Map Review: Illustrate the progress of the Russian-Japanese war to date.
- Papers: (a) Lessons from Political Assassinations; (b) Effects of the New Treaty between France and England signed April 8; (c) The Florence Maybrick Case (released July 20); (d) Great Britain in Tibet; (e) Character Sketches of the Late George Frederick Watts, painter; Henry M. Stanley, explorer; Theodor Herzl, Zionist.
- Readings: (a) From "Christians in Japanese Politics," by E. W. Clement, *World Today* for July; (b) From "A Reading Journey Through Japan," by Anna C. Hartshorne, *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for August; (c) From "What the People Read in Russia and Japan," *Review of Reviews* for April and May; (d) From "My Airships," by Santos-Dumont; (e) From "A Reading Journey in Belgium," *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for September.
- War Symposium: (1) If Japan Should Win; (2) If Russia Should Win; (3) If Mediation of other Great Powers Should be Invoked.

# Chautauqua Spare Minute Course

The Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, complete in the pages of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for 1904-05 beginning with this issue, has been arranged to meet the demand for a short course of systematic reading in place of haphazard, hit or miss reading to no purpose. The course consists of the seven leading serial topics entitled, "Social Progress in Europe," "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany," "German Master Musicians," "Civic Lessons from Europe," "Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare," "How the American Boy is Educated," and "Nature Study" (the last named beginning in October).

This brief course offers to individuals a means of making the time spent in reading count for something during the year. It is planned to give a background, a standard of judgment, power of discrimination, sense of proportion, in a word education along lines of present-day importance, that will make all one's reading of use to him.

Additional articles and the regular departments of the magazine relate to features of the course and constitute important sidelights upon it. "Highways and Byways" editorial comment on the current events with special reference to the serial topics, "Survey of Civic Betterment," "Talk About Books," "News Summary," programs, helps and hints, and special supplementary articles represent a useful and entertaining variety.

One does not need to become a member of any organization to get the benefit of this "group plan" of reading. There is no membership fee and the course is offered to individual readers complete in the magazine for the year.

## RECOGNITION FROM CHAUTAUQUA

In the last magazine of the year containing Spare Minute Course material, blanks will be printed upon the filling out of which a Spare Minute Course Certificate will be awarded by Chautauqua Institution.

Persons will be entitled to a certificate who have read the Spare Minute Course serials named above. These will be known as "Specified Reading." For reading the other "recommended" serials and departments in the magazine a seal on the certificate will be awarded.

## SPARE MINUTE PROGRAMS

The Chautauqua Spare Minute Course is fully adapted to the use of clubs and so-

cieties. It should be particularly helpful to clubs of men, school literary societies, church young people's societies, organizations in shops and stores, and other groups of busy people with few opportunities and limited time.

The program suggestions outlined under this heading will be based upon features of the "Social Progress Year" of topics as presented from month to month in this magazine. It is better to choose a few program suggestions and carry them out well than to try to do too much at a single session.

**Define terms:** Social progress, socialism, social spirit, socialization, solidarity, feudalism, slavery, serfdom, political democracy, industrial democracy.

**Summary:** Article on "Some Features of the Old Régime," by F. A. Ogg, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

**Discussion:** Why should the French Revolution be taken as a starting point for a survey of modern Social Progress?

**Readings:** (a) From "Bacteriology: Food, Drink and Sewage," by H. W. Conn, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*; (b) From "Social Unrest," by John Graham Brooks; (c) From "Uplift Number" *World's Work* for July; (d) From "Railroad Civics Number" *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for June; (e) From "Social Salvation" by Washington Gladden.

**Address:** The Greatest Educational Need of Our Times.

**Review Paper:** The Principles of Street Decoration (described in Mr. Maltbie's article in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*) and their application to local conditions.

**Symposium:** Factors in Social Progress. Appoint persons to describe the true function of the reformer, the organizer, the preacher and the teacher in modern society, and vote on which is the most important.

Additional program material may be found in "Civic Progress Programs," "Current Events Programs," "Suggestive Programs for Local Circles," "The Travel Club," etc., on other pages of this issue of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Correspondence or inquiries may be addressed to the Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, Chautauqua, New York.



## COUNSELORS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

JESSE L. HURLBUT, D. D.  
 LYMAN ABBOTT, D. D.  
 HENRY W. WARREN, D. D.  
 J. M. GIBSON, D. D.

EDWARD EVERETT HALE, D. D.  
 JAMES H. CARLISLE, LL. D.  
 WM. C. WILKINSON, D. D.  
 W. P. KANE, D. D.

MISS KATE F. KIMBALL, Executive Secretary.

### A GREETING FROM THE CHANCELLOR

Every Chautauqua reader will rejoice that Chancellor Vincent is once more at home in this country after his four years' absence in Europe as Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church. From his summer cottage at Chautauqua where so many plans for the C. L. S. C. have been developed since the days of its founding in 1878, he sends this message of greeting to every member of the C. L. S. C.:



CHANCELLOR  
VINCENT

New books and a new year of interesting reading and study! I salute you at the outset—with congratulations and a word of counsel!

To read thoughtfully is to study. One may transfer page after page of printed matter from the open book to the retina of his eye, and not study at all. But when he *thinks* as he reads, when he *thinks about* what he reads, when he thinks about it *after he reads*, he can afford to close, to lose, to forget the book—because having been a reader he is a student. One who follows this program does not after all lose the book because the substance and soul of it is absorbed by him and becomes a part of his personality.

Fellow members of the C. L. S. C., let me exhort you to such thoughtful self-appropriating use of every page of the required reading for the coming year!

JOHN H. VINCENT.

Tent Cottage,  
 Chautauqua, N. Y., August 11, 1904.

"WE NEED BUT TO DO EVERYWHERE, WHAT  
 SOMEONE IS DOING SOMEWHERE"

At a great meeting in the Chicago Auditorium held in November, 1903, to the memory of Mr. Henry D. Lloyd, Miss Jane Addams of Hull-House delivered a brief and most effective address upon Mr. Lloyd's life and work. The address expressed so fittingly the growing social spirit of our time, which Mr. Lloyd helped to promote in no small degree, that even the following brief selection, which is all we can give here, will be of interest to readers of the Round Table:

"His search for the Accomplished Good was untiring. It took him again and again on journeys to England, to Australia, to Switzerland, wherever indeed he detected the beginning of an attempt to 'equalize welfare,' as he called it, wherever he caught tidings of a successful democracy. He brought back cheering reports of the 'Labor Copartnership' in England, through which the workingmen own together farms, mills, factories and dairies, and run them for mutual profit; of the people's banks in Central Europe, which are at last bringing economic redemption to the hard-pressed peasants; of the old age pensions in Australia; of the country without strikes because compulsory arbitration is fairly enforced; of the national railroads in New Zealand, which carry the school children free and scatter the unemployed on the new lands. . . .

"As other men collect coins or pictures, so Mr. Lloyd collected specimens of successful coöperation—of brotherhood put into practice. He came at last to an unshaken belief that this round old world

of ours is liberty dotted over with groups of men and women who are steadily bringing in a more rational social order. To quote his own words:

"We need but to do everywhere what some one is doing somewhere! 'We do but need to do, what a few are doing!' 'We must learn to walk together in new ways.'"



#### "SPECIMENS OF BROTHERHOOD PUT INTO PRACTICE"

What happier ideal for our Social Progress year can be suggested than this expression of Miss Addams. If Mr. Lloyd has rendered service to the world by gathering up this valuable material, let us as Chautauquans make ourselves familiar with it that we may let others know how the world is moving forward. Mr. Lloyd's three books, "Labor Copartnership," "Newest England," and "A Country without Strikes," are full of concrete illustrations. If your library does not own these books, try to get the librarian to secure them and each month let the circle devote part of one meeting to reports on "brotherhood put into practice." Other books which throw light on this subject will be suggested from month to month.



#### SOME OF OUR AUTHORS

Profesor F. A. Ogg who is contributing our series of studies on "Social Progress in Europe" is already known to many Chautauqua readers through his admirable articles on "Saxon and Slav" which were published in THE CHAUTAUQUAN two years ago. Mr. Ogg has been connected with the Department of History of the University of Indiana for some years, but has recently spent a year at Harvard University in preparation for further literary work. In addition to the articles mentioned above, he has published a volume on "The Exploration and Diplomacy of the Mississippi."



F. A. OGG

The author of our book on "The French Revolution," Professor Shailer Mathews of the University of Chicago, has



SHAILER  
MATHIEWS

gained an enviable reputation as a writer of history who combines accurate scholarship with a peculiar felicity of expression. It would be difficult to find a book more suitable for study in a "Social Progress" year, since the Revolution was the starting point for the wonderful developments of the nineteenth century. Professor Mathews in addition

to his university duties is editor of *The World Today*, a monthly magazine published in Chicago.

"The States General," which is the first book in our course for this year, belongs to an important series of stories on the French Revolution, by two Frenchmen, Messrs. Erckmann and Chatrain. Erckmann was born in Phalsburg in Lorraine, and Chatrain in the same district; both were therefore very familiar with the history of that border territory in which the scene of "The States General" is laid. Many of their stories were first published in papers and magazines. Among the most widely read of these are "The History of a Conscript of 1813" (1873), "Friend Fritz" and "Waterloo." Two of their works were dramatized, "Le juif polonais" being familiar in America as "The Bells" in which Sir Henry Irving has frequently appeared. The combined literary activities of Messrs. Erckmann and Chatrain continued some thirty years, their partnership being dissolved in 1889.



#### SOME NOVELS OF SOCIAL LIFE

However busy we are, most of us snatch a little time through the year for the reading of fiction. Sometimes for want of something better at hand we read whatever comes in our way and waste precious time that would be much more happily

spent on books more worth while and equally interesting. Why not plan to let our reading of fiction this year bear a relation to our studies, The fiction will thus illuminate the serious work and the latter will make our fiction more intelligible. How many of us are familiar with the following group of books each of which portrays some interesting phase of English social life:

"John Halifax," D. M. Craik; "Alton Locke," Charles Kingsley; "Marcella," Mrs. Humphrey Ward; "All Sorts and Conditions of Men," Besant; "Put Yourself in His Place," Charles Reade; "Mary Barton," Mrs. Gaskell; "Felix Holt," George Eliot; "No. 5 John St.," Richard Whiteing. Let us have one or more of these books where we can pick it up in moments of leisure. We may be surprised to find how much of the very best literature we can come to know in this way. If you read some of these books long ago, read them again now. The world has changed and you have changed since that time and you will find that they give you a new point of view.

#### "MASTERS IN ART"

Chautauqua readers will be glad to know that it is possible to secure for a trifling sum, many excellent reproductions of works of art that we shall want to study in connection with our Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany. A series of monographs entitled "Masters in Art" is being published by a Boston firm

who have already issued pamphlets on some thirty subjects. These monographs contain a biographical sketch of the artist, ten fine half tones of his works, and selections from the writings of the great art critics commenting upon them. Each monograph costs twenty cents, so that it is possible for every circle, however isolated, to be supplied with practical help in their study of the great works of art. For the Belgian Reading Journey, two of these monographs are available—Rubens and the Van Eycks. These can be secured by sending forty cents to Chautauqua Institution, Chautauqua, N. Y.

In the C. L. S. C. Membership Book which goes to every enrolled member, a list of some four hundred French names has been given with the correct pronunciation of each as far as it is possible to indicate this by the printed page; but circles which can secure some teacher of French to conduct a pronunciation exercise for them should do so if possible, for the only sure way to acquire a correct knowledge of a foreign language is to hear it spoken.

The Membership Book also contains review questions on all of the required books. In THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found questions upon the required articles in the magazine. Circles are, however, urged to try the plan of making out their own questions, for the benefit that such an exercise will be to the members.

#### OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR OCTOBER

##### OCTOBER 1-8—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Belgium of Charles the Bold and Philip II."

Required Books: "The States General" to page 58. "The French Revolution." Chapter I.

##### OCTOBER 8-15—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Belgium of Charles the Bold and Philip II."

Required Books: "The States General" to page 120. "The French Revolution." Chapter II to page 23.

##### OCTOBER 15-22—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "Social Progress in Europe" to page 22.

Required Books: "The States General" to page 188. "The French Revolution." Chapter II concluded.

##### OCTOBER 22-29—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "Social Progress in Europe" to page 29.

Required Books: "The States General," concluded. "The French Revolution." Chapter III.

##### OCTOBER 29-NOVEMBER 5—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "German Master Musicians." Bach.

Required Book: "The French Revolution." Chapter IV.



## SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

## OCTOBER 1-8—

1. Map Review: Geographical features of Belgium.
2. Roll-call: The characteristics of the Belgian cities which make them quite distinct in their individuality. (A city should be assigned to each member.) See bibliography for references.
3. Paper: The Van Artevelde and their times (see bibliography.)
4. Oral Report: Some characteristics of the guilds in Belgium.
5. Book Review: Walter Scott's "Quentin Durward" with selections.
6. Reading: Selections from "Recent Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare" in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.



## OCTOBER 8-15—

1. Paper: The revolt of the Netherlands.
2. Roll-call: Each member should be assigned a given city and report on its chief buildings. The circle should have at hand all available photographs as well as the pictures in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Different groups of buildings might be taken up in order—first the town halls, then the guild halls, the cathedrals, etc.
3. Reading: Legends of the Ardennes (see "In the Ardennes"); Amusements and Legends (see "Belgian Life in Town and Country"); or "A Chapter of Folk Lore," (see "Belgium and the Belgians"); also "The Belfry of Bruges" (see "Library Shelf" in this magazine.)
4. The Story of Egmont and Hoorne: Oral accounts with reading of selections from Schiller's "History of the Revolt of the Netherlands" or from Motley's "Rise of the Dutch Republic" or other histories (see bibliography.)
5. Discussion: The Van Eycks (see "Masters in Art" and paragraph in Round Table.)



## OCTOBER 15-22—

1. Roll-call: Brief reports on the other countries of Europe at the time of the French Revolution; their rulers and social conditions. (One country should be assigned to each member.)
2. Quiz on Social Progress article.
3. An imaginary meeting of representatives of the French nation in 1760. Ten persons should be chosen and each should make a three-minute speech expressing his feelings about the then present conditions of society. The ten characters might include: (1) Louis XV. (2) Madame de Pompadour. (3) A noble of the highest rank. (4) A conscientious intendant as Turgot. (5) A peasant. (6) A landless noble. (7) A member of the bourgeoisie. (8) An artisan. (9) An army officer. (10)

A private. (See bibliography of works on the French Revolution on page 29 of this magazine and also in Professor Mathews' book.)

4. Reading: Selections from "Jacques Bonhomme" or from "John Bull on the Continent," by Max O'Rell, or Dickens's "Tale of Two Cities," or Hugo's "Hunch Back of Notre Dame."
5. Debate: Resolved, That there is greater moral danger to a nation from excessive wealth than from extreme poverty.



## OCTOBER 22-29—

1. Roll-call: Answered by quotations from Victor Hugo relating to the Revolutionary period.
2. Review of Social Progress article.
3. Reading: From Carlyle's "French Revolution," describing the last days of Louis XV, or from "Life and Letters of Madame de Sevigne," by Anne Thackeray Ritchie, or from one of the series "Famous Women of the French Court," by Imbert de Saint-Amand.
4. Pronunciation drill on French names (see Membership Book.)
5. Reports on "Specimens of Human Brotherhood put into Practice" in France if possible; if not, then in other countries (see "Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century," and note in Round Table.)
6. Discussion of article in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN on "Civic Lessons from Europe."



## OCTOBER 29-NOVEMBER 5—

1. Roll-call: Reports on the religious condition of other European countries at the time of the French Revolution, character of the clergy, sectarian features and influences of the church. Different members should report on England, Russia, Germany, Austria, Italy and Spain.
2. Review of Chapter IV in "The French Revolution."
3. Oral Report: The Illuminati, with reading from George Sand's "The Countess of Rudolstadt," which describes the organization.
4. Reading: "The Story of the Diamond Necklace" with selections from Carlyle's essay, or readings from "Le Chevalier de Maison-Rouge," by Dumas, or from "Our Dear Neighbors," by Max O'Rell.
5. The present-day religious problem in France. (See *Review of Reviews*, 29: 609-11 (May, '04). *Outlook*, 74:498-9 (June 27, '03), and other recent magazine articles.) The problem in England (See *Review of Reviews*, 27:78-81 (Jan., '03), *Outlook*, 74:656-8 (July 11, '03), *Outlook*, 74:766-7 (July 25, '03), and *Chautauqua Assembly Herald* for July 21, '03. The latter can be secured for five cents from the Chautauqua office.)

## THE TRAVEL CLUB

These programs are intended for clubs or graduate circles which are specializing upon the Reading Journey.

As the individuality of the Belgian cities plays a large part in the history of the country, it is suggested that one city be assigned to each member of the club who shall make a special study of it and be able to report at each meeting some facts which connect that city with the period or subject under discussion.



## FIRST WEEK—

1. Map Review: Geographical features of Belgium.
2. Roll-call: The characteristics of the Belgian cities which make them quite distinct in their individuality.
3. Papers: The Guilds of Belgium; The Van Artevelde and life in Belgium under the Burgundians. (See histories and suggestions in bibliography.)
4. Reading: Selections from Henry Taylor's poem of Philip Van Artevelde (see the Warner Library of the World's Best Literature), or from "An Inland Voyage," by Robert Louis Stevenson, or from "Brave Little Holland and What She Has Taught Us," by W. E. Griffis.
5. Book Review: Walter Scott's "Quentin Durward."
6. Reading: Selections from "Quentin Durward."



## SECOND WEEK—

1. Paper: Charles V and his attitude toward the Netherlands.
- 2.—Brief oral reports explaining the following architectural terms: Basilica, Romanesque, Norman, Gothic, Flamboyant, Renaissance, Rococo. Each speaker should if possible have one or more pictures to illustrate the points brought out.
3. Roll-call. The chief buildings of the different cities. The club should have at hand all available photographs as well as the pictures in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. Different groups of buildings might be



## THE LIBRARY SHELF

## THE BELFRY AT BRUGES

By Henry W. Longfellow.

In the market-place of Bruges stands the belfry old and brown;  
Thrice consumed and thrice rebuilt, still it watches o'er the town.

As the summer morn was breaking, on that lofty tower I stood,  
And the world threw off the darkness, like the weeds of widowhood.

Thick with towns and hamlets studded, and with streams and vapors gray,  
Like a shield embossed with silver, round and vast the landscape lay.

taken up in order—first the town halls, then the guild halls, the cathedrals, etc. This will give an opportunity for comparison of styles.

4. Reading: Legends of the Ardennes (see "In the Ardennes," Chapter IX), or Amusements and Legends (see "Belgian Life in Town and Country," Chapter XIV), or from "A Chapter of Folk Lore" (see "Belgium and the Belgians"), or from "From Home to Throne in Belgium," *Harper's Magazine*, 94:722 (April, '97).
5. Book Review: With reading of selections: "The Lion of Flanders," by Henri Conscience.



## THIRD WEEK—

1. Brief reports of the religious and political conditions in the various countries of Europe at the time of the accession of Philip II.
2. Character Studies: Philip II; William the Silent (see bibliography.)
3. The Story of Egmont and Hoorne: Oral account with reading of selections from Schiller's "History of the Revolt of the Netherlands," or from Motley's "Rise of the Dutch Republic."
4. Roll-call: Reports from the cities, showing their part in the struggle against Philip II.
5. Discussion: Article on "Civic Lessons from Europe" in this magazine, also of article on "Belgium's Art Crusade," *Harper's Magazine*, 104:444 (Feb., '02.)



## FOURTH WEEK—

1. Roll-call: Reports from the Belgian cities on the art treasures in each.
2. Paper: The Van Eycks (see "Masters in Art").
3. Discussion of ten Van Eyck pictures, each being assigned to a different member of the club (see "Masters in Art").
4. Reading: Account of Quentin Matsys in "Old Dutch Masters," *The Century Magazine*, 26:592 (Aug., '94).

At my feet the city slumbered. From its chimneys here and there,  
Wreaths of snow-white smoke, ascending, vanished, ghost-like, into air.

Not a sound rose from the city at that early morning hour,  
But I heard a heart of iron beating in the ancient tower.

From their nests beneath the rafters sang the swallows wild and high;  
And the world, beneath me sleeping, seemed more distant than the sky.

Then most musical and solemn, bringing back the olden times,  
With their strange, unearthly changes rang the melancholy chimes,

Like the psalms from some old cloister, when  
the nuns sing in the choir;  
And the great bell tolled among them, like the  
chanting of a friar.

Visions of the days departed, shadowy phan-  
toms filled my brain;  
They who live in history only seemed to walk  
the earth again;

All the Foresters of Flanders,—mighty Bald-  
win Bras de Fer,  
Lyderick du Bucq and Cressy, Philip, Guy de  
Dampierre.

I beheld the pageants splendid that adorned  
those days of old;  
Stately dames, like queens attended, knights  
who bore the Fleece of Gold;



VIRGIN AND CHILD

By Michael Angelo.

Lombard and Venetian merchants with deep-  
laden argosies;  
Ministers from twenty nations; more than  
royal pomp and ease.

I beheld proud Maximilian, kneeling humbly on  
the ground;  
I beheld the gentle Mary, hunting with her  
hawk and hound;

And her lighted bridal-chamber, where a duke  
slept with the queen.  
And the armed guard around them, and the  
sword unsheathed between.

I beheld the Flemish weavers, with Namur and  
Juliers bold,  
Marching homeward from the bloody battle of  
the Spurs of Gold;

Saw the fight at Minnewater, saw the White  
Hoods moving west,  
Saw great Artevelde victorious scale the  
Golden Dragon's nest.

And again the whiskered Spaniard all the land  
with terror smote;  
And again the wild alarm sounded from the  
tocsin's throat;

Till the bell of Ghent responded o'er lagoon  
and dike of sand,  
"I am Roland! I am Roland! there is victory  
in the land!"

Then the sound of drums around me. The  
awakening city's roar  
Chased the phantoms I had summoned back  
into their graves once more.

Hours had passed away like minutes; and, be-  
fore I was aware,  
Lo! the shadow of the belfry crossed the sun-  
illumined square.



#### THE MADONNA OF MICHAEL ANGELO

Among the many attractions of the city of  
Bruges is the Madonna of Michael Angelo  
shown in the accompanying illustration. Mr.  
Edmund Gosse in his "Impressions of Bruges"  
comments upon it as follows:

"In the second church of Bruges, Notre  
Dame, in the chapel of the southern transept  
behind a gaudy vase of artificial flowers, the  
visitor comes unexpectedly on one of the most  
beautiful and least known works of art in the  
north of Europe. Why is this exquisite marble  
so little talked about? Probably because one  
does not expect in Gothic Bruges a statue of  
the purest Italian Renaissance. . . . It is  
recorded by Condivi that a certain Mouscron,  
of Bruges, gave Michael Angelo a commission  
for a Madonna and Child. Here is the group,  
universally attributed to the great Florentine,  
and immediately before it under an engraved  
slab of marble adorned with enamel coats of  
arms, lies buried the donor, Peter Mouscron.  
It is supposed that the statue dates from 1509.  
It represents Our Lady, as the early Italians  
sometimes loved to carve her, a graceful, mel-  
ancholy girl, exquisitely human, rather bowed  
down by the miracle than rejoicing in it; her  
divine son, on the other hand, who seizes her  
listless fingers in a vigorous grasp, is a  
child of the noblest type; he rests, all but  
standing, nude, at his mother's knee and turns  
to the spectator an enchanting head softly  
modeled under its full curls in the sweetness  
of childhood, but betraying its divinity in its  
rich forms and its dignified pose. I know not  
in the whole range of art a lovelier concep-  
tion of Christ in infancy than is presented by  
this delicious marble figure."



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## NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES

As the Round Table came to order for the first meeting of the new year, Pendragon regarded with much approval the large number of delegates who represented the Class of 1908. "This new class," he remarked, "has already asserted itself in four continents, for aside from our own country, it has members in Lima, Peru, and Hamburg, Germany, and, what ought to give it special pride, can claim the first

with you in regard to it. Would you please forward your prospectus naming terms, conditions and suggestions. One trouble with us, I may state, is the fact that during seven months of the year we only get first-class mail matter, the great bulk of newspapers, magazines, or other printed matter is delayed until the river boats run through in the summer months.'

"Perhaps before the Round Table meets again we shall hear of a circle at 'Bonanza,' and possibly also a new one in Arizona where from Fort Apache, we have recently had a request for a supply of circulars for distribution. This request is made by an Apache Indian!"



"I am now going to ask Mrs. Adams of the Hurlbut Circle at East Boston to repeat for us the story she told us on Rallying Day of Chautauqua's influence in one home."

"The Hurlbut Circle, as perhaps you know," responded Mrs. Adams, "is twenty-two years old so it has been making history for some time. A short time after the circle had been started, a young German came and asked to join. Soon after joining he became our secretary. He is our secretary to this day. Our first president also still remains. This young lad who was acting as secretary brought a great deal of artistic work into his position as secretary and thus gave us some most delightful programs. One evening he brought a young lady to the meeting. She took great interest in the work, and was very earnest in her attention. After a time there was a marriage. A new home opened for our Chautauqua Circle, for it had always been the custom of our circle to meet at the different homes of the members. Later little voices came into the home. 'C. L. S. C.' were almost the first sounds they learned to utter. Their first journeys out into the world were on missions to distribute Chautauqua Circle programs, at first in their carriage, until they became old enough to carry them on foot.

"This last year the father through the C. L. S. C. course has become greatly interested in American art. So he has fallen into the habit of taking his children on expeditions to see various works of art in the city. One day he took his two little daughters to see the statue by French, 'Death Staying the Hand of the Sculptor,' and also his statue 'Peace.' On another occasion he took his three little girls and two little nephews out for a trip. It was raining and the only way that the father could be sure that he had his five little charges safe was by the five little umbrellas. He took them to see Shaw's monument opposite the State House, then to the governor's reception, where



SEÑORITA ZAMORA

native Filipino member ever enrolled in the C. L. S. C. This member, Señorita Maria del Pilar Zamora," he continued, "you may possibly meet if you go to St. Louis, for she has charge of the model school exhibit at the Filipino village and with fifty-four young people to teach from four different tribes, some of them only half civilized, she has her hands full. Miss Zamora spent several days at Chautauqua this summer and delighted everybody by her interesting story of her work, her genuine enthusiasm and charming personality. We have also a member of 1908 from Skaguay, Alaska, and in this connection I think you will be interested in the following letter, recently received. It is dated Bonanza, Yukon Territory:

'Dear Sir:

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they all shook the hand of the governor, and then to the public garden. He is training his children in the ways of art and the best in life.

"But this is not the end of the influence of the C. L. S. C. We may be sure that these five children are started in the right direction through the influence of the C. L. S. C. Lately their father has become interested in the study of law with a view to entering politics. Some day you may hear of him in congress."



As the speaker retired, Pendragon brought to the front a delegate who had not been presented to the Round Table, saying as he did so: "We are indebted to the St. Louis Exposition for bringing us a delegate from South Africa, Rev. J. J. Ross, who was one of the early converts to the Chautauqua cause. Mr. Ross spoke for us on Rallying Day at Chautauqua this year and I can assure you that his story is an interesting one." On being greeted by the Chautauqua Salute Mr. Ross responded:

"In the first place I must tell how I came first to hear about Chautauqua. It was in 1885. I was at the time in the Cape Colony. I heard about a conference or assembly that was to be held at Wellington. Some prominent men were to speak there. I went, and in time heard about the Chautauqua movement. I still remember some of the lectures that were given at that time. I remember especially the concluding address that was given by Rev. Andrew Murray. Not long afterward I went to the mission field where I am now engaged.

"For a long time I did not hear much about the Chautauqua movement, nor did I think much about it. One morning, however, I received a circular giving a short outline of the work. I read it over, was much interested, and showed it to a friend and asked what he thought about it. 'That seems to me something good,' said he. 'We need system in our reading.' So it was agreed that I should take down his name and my own, and send them as members, and then we should try to see how many others we could get to join. I sent names to Wellington, I believe, and we were enrolled as members of the C. L. S. C. In time we got enough others to join to make a circle of fifteen members. We got books and magazines and began work.

"Our work was much like that of many

other circles. We had our meetings every fortnight. One of the first things we had to do was to learn to pronounce Chautauqua. We looked up the word in all the English dictionaries we had, but nowhere could we learn to pronounce the strange word. 'What queer names they must have in America,' our readers said, 'it must be an Indian name.'

"We did most of our reading at home, leaving the meeting for the discussion of related topics. One of the farmers built a school-house where we used to meet. The roads were bad and some of the members had a good way to come. We were greatly interested in the work. When we were studying the German authors, such remarks as these would be heard: 'I never knew there were any such men.' 'Why, they are really fine fellows.' Similar remarks were made when we were studying about American literature. The members of the circle made great progress in the memorizing of poetry. It was wonderful the work that some of the old men did. The work went on nicely for a time, but in the exigencies of South African life, the members of the circle gradually drifted away, and at last I was the only one left.

"These meetings had done some good, however. One of the members was a young London cockney. Perhaps you know how a cockney speaks. This man's education was very poor. Indeed, he was grossly ignorant. But the meetings helped him much in his work, and whatever he is today he has to thank the Chautauqua meeting for.

"I myself had an extended mission field with many stations, schools, and evangelists under my charge. My time was fully occupied. I found it difficult therefore to do my Chautauqua work. I almost despaired finishing the last year of my course. I was building at the time, with fifteen or twenty boys assisting me, yet I managed to do part of the reading in the morning and a part in the evening. Besides the regular course I also completed a course in Bible study, and one in current events. I received my diploma for the work and have framed it and hung it in my study. I can make no promise as I leave this meeting and go back to South Africa. But the spirit may move me to do something in my own home."



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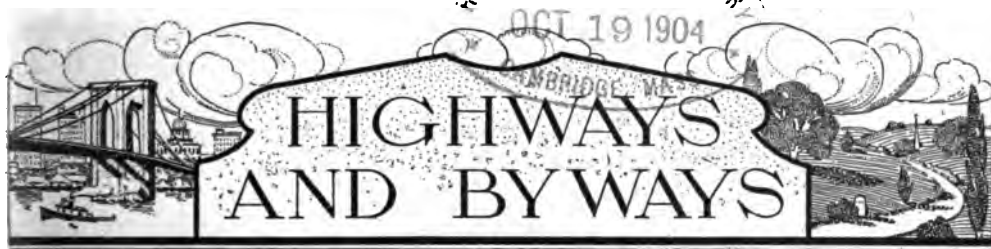
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# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

VOL. XL.

OCTOBER, 1904.

No. 2.



**P**RACTICAL politicians are even now complaining of the popular indifference to the presidential contest of this year. It is impossible to make great issues to order, and the feeling of the average citizen seems to be that there are no such issues before the country. The party platforms failed to provide them, and the notification ceremonies, with the speeches of acceptance, by the candidates, have not supplied the deficiency.

The tariff and the trusts are not seriously regarded as campaign issues. The Democrats, it is true, attack excessive and extreme protection and favor "reasonable" reductions of Dingley-law duties and liberal reciprocity. But, as Judge Parker himself pointed out, the Democrats, even if they secured control of the national House and elected their presidential ticket, could pass no tariff that the Republican senate (and the senate cannot be "captured" by the Democrats next November in any event) did not sanction and approve. This means either no tariff change at all or changes so moderate that even protectionist senators of Republican affiliations could not object to them.

As to trusts, neither party proposes any additional legislation of moment. The two leading parties agree that there is an abundance of law in the premises, and that the remedies of common and statute law have not been fully tested. The Democrats suggest the conferring of greater power on the Interstate Commerce Commission for the purpose of preventing illegal discrimination and fav-

oritism (of which the trusts are usually the beneficiaries), but there is little promise of popular excitement in proposals of this sort.

Is prosperity to be an issue? The strikes, declining wages, diminished employment, restricted production are referred to by Democratic candidates and orators as proof that prosperity is rather a past than a present condition. The price of living is a topic of great interest, but official statistics are relied upon by the Republicans to demonstrate that wages have advanced to a higher level than prices. These statistics, it should be stated, do not cover the current year. Democratic newspapers consider them partial, misleading and arbitrary.

In the absence of concrete issues, what remains to make the fight on, seeing that a fight must be made? The best opinion is that the real if unavowed and unformulated issue will be the personality of the candidates. Republicans are not attacking Judge Parker, but they do not hesitate to discuss ex-Senator Davis's chances of life and the disturbing uncertainty that would arise were Judge Parker elected and Mr. Davis made his constitutional successor in the event of death. The Democrats represent Mr. Roosevelt as an unsafe and impulsive and aggressive man, and dwell on the importance of dignity, stability and reverence for the constitution and the laws—qualities which, according to them, Judge Parker possesses in a conspicuous degree.

In addition to this personal issue, the differences in the spirit, tone and general

character of the two parties will be emphasized. The Republicans say that, conservative as the Democratic candidates and platform may be this year, the party



THE LATE GEORGE  
GRAHAM VEST  
United States Sen-  
ator from Mis-  
souri.

as a whole cannot be trusted, since it is at heart a free-trade and anti-gold standard party. The Democrats allege that the Republican party is controlled by the protected interests and committed to imperialism and colonial aggression, and that neither tariff reform nor justice to the Philippines can be expected from it.

It is a fact, however, that the discussion of these issues or quasi-issues is carried on in a languid, perfunctory fashion by the partisan newspapers. The public apparently takes little interest in the first phases of the campaign. Whether a change of feeling is imminent remains to be seen.



### Turkey and American Prestige

The United States, by a naval demonstration and an implicit threat of force, has forced the government of Turkey to rectify what has for some years been regarded at Washington as a serious injustice. It is not alleged that our treaty rights have been violated by the Porte, but it is a fact that the United States has not been on a footing of equality in Turkey with other western powers.

There has been no satisfactory statement of the American case, but semi-official explanations represent the essential facts to be as follows: Religious and educational institutions maintained by Americans in Turkey have not had the

recognition and protection which other nations have secured for similar institutions. Graduates of American professional schools have also been discriminated against and former subjects of the sultan naturalized in the United States have been treated unjustly if not harshly.

For months Mr. Leishman, the American minister to Turkey, had pressed these questions and sought to obtain promises of improved relations. On behalf of the Turkish government, indisposed, as ever, to commit itself, it had been alleged that Americans were causing more trouble and mischief in the country than other aliens; that Armenians, for example, were encouraged to seek the privilege of American citizenship for the express purpose of gaining freedom to carry on seditious agitation, and, finally, that the United States itself was decidedly backward in bringing its citizens to justice at the demands of Turkey. These excuses were not, it is hardly necessary to say, accepted as valid or sufficient, and when other means were deemed exhausted, a squadron under Rear Admiral Jewell was ordered to Smyrna.

This move appears to have had the ef-



It is reported that Senator Fairbanks offered his services as a private in the late Spanish American War—News item.

—From the *Cleveland Plain Dealer*.

[Private Fairbanks, shouldering arms, passes in review before Roosevelt whose sword is thrown to the ground and tagged "my war record"; Parker arrayed in bathing suit labeled "my dip in the Hudson;" and Davis mounted, hat flown, and carrying the banner "my 200 mile horseback ride."]

fect anticipated, the Porte having solemnly assured our minister that the United States would hereafter enjoy all the privileges demanded. It is true that fresh difficulties have been raised and new misunderstandings invited by the peculiar diplomacy of the sultan, but no serious complication is feared. Political opponents of the Roosevelt administration have imputed motives *apropos* of the affair. The people, however, have shown no disposition to "take it into politics."



### France and the Papacy

Since the strange action of the Vatican in protesting to the Catholic powers against President Loubet's visit to the King of Italy at his capital, Rome, the relations between the French Republic and the papacy have grown more and more hostile. In a diplomatic sense, a complete rupture has taken place. The French representative at the Vatican has left Rome, and the nuncio has left Paris.

This rupture had for its immediate cause the "affair of the Bishops," which is but vaguely understood abroad. The Bishops of Dijon and Laval, who had been accused of sympathy with the anti-Church policy of the Combes ministry and its war on the monastic orders, were ordered to Rome by the papal Secretary of State. The French government promptly protested against this order as being a violation of the concordat (the ancient agreement between France and Rome) and commanded the bishops to remain at their posts. One obeyed the government, the other—the Vatican. The attitude of the Pope was uncompromising; he insisted on his right to control the French bishops (who are nominated and paid by the government) in all spiritual matters and to discipline them for misconduct. M. Combes, rather arbitrarily, it is thought, denied this right and contended that complaints against any bishop should be submitted to the government.

The concordat is silent upon the question, and in all probability the Vatican was right. But so strained were the relations between the church and the republic that this trivial controversy was permitted to lead to the result mentioned above.

What next? The logical sequel would be the repeal of the concordat, so long contemplated by the extreme republicans; but it is not believed that the Combes ministry will go to this length. The chamber of deputies would probably vote for abrogation, and in the present state of opinion its judgment would be approved by the country. Elections to the councils-general (provincial governing bodies) held after the rupture, were distinctly favorable to the government. While France is nominally the leading Catholic power, her artisans and professional classes are aggressively anti-clerical and even her peasantry may be depended upon to sympathize with the civil power. The obligation of the abrogation of the concordat and the disestablishment of the Roman Church is of a different order.

It is felt that the state could not withdraw the privileges enjoyed by the church without at the same time freeing the clergy from the restrictions which accompany the privileges. Separation would mean non-interference with the church. And as the great majority of the priests are anti-republican, a most powerful opposition to the civil government would at once arise. This danger the Combes ministry does not care to face. It would gladly favor separation if it had no fear



THE LATE PIERRE  
MARIE WALDECK-  
ROUSSEAU.  
Ex - Premier of  
France.



of a successful propaganda by the militant clergy against the republic.

The Vatican, on the other hand, is supposed to be quite reconciled to separation just because it expects to gain a high degree of freedom. The pope is believed to have determined upon what may be called the Americanization of the church in France. The loss of the \$8,000,000 which parliament annually appropriates for the support of the clergy and the houses of worship would be a hardship at first, but would not



EARL ALBERT HENRY  
GEORGE GREY  
New Governor  
General of Canada.

the loyal Catholics of the upper strata of society readily supply this amount? Is not the Catholic church strong and wealthy in countries that have no budgets of public worship, or whose religion is Protestant? There are impartial observers who declare that it would be a grave mistake for the Vatican to force separation on the theory that what has proved feasible or beneficent in the United States will necessarily be equally successful in France. A more "political" pope would have made concessions to the republic for the sake of peace; Pius X seems to aim at an absolutism that is repugnant to modern European thought.



## Politics In Great Britain

There has been no notable change in the political situation of the United Kingdom. A long and barren session of parliament came to an end in August, Premier Balfour having held his own, thanks to the forbearance of the followers of Mr. Chamberlain, and having persist-

ently declined to take up the opposition's challenge with regard to the fiscal issue, Mr. Balfour and his faction are not desirous to "appeal to the country." The policy of delay and suspense has kept them in power and may continue to favor them until the constitutional end of the existence of the present parliament. It is true that, with rare exceptions (if exceptions they may be called) the by-elections held since the emergence of the fiscal issue have indicated intense dissatisfaction with the government. The Liberal opposition has won seat after seat, has wrested constituency after constituency from the party in power, and has converted Tory-Unionist majorities into minorities in places deemed impervious to the arguments of the free traders. It is now said that no Conservative seat is safe which is held by less than 1,200 votes in excess of the Liberal strength. But, even if it be conceded that the party of Balfour and Chamberlain has lost the confidence of the country, legally it is of course entitled to complete its term of office. And this is the view which Mr. Balfour has publicly taken. He still has a majority in the house of commons. It has not at any time fallen below forty—an ample margin, in his opinion. The present parliament, he holds, has no right, and is under no mandate, to deal with the fiscal issues, whereas it is bound to legislate upon the questions which the voters have considered in the proper way.

Mr. Chamberlain is not of the same opinion. He believes that the fiscal issue is "ripe" and the sooner it is submitted the more pleased he will be. If there is to be delay, he is anxious to make use of the interval. He has proposed the calling of a conference of colonial premiers (or rather colonial representatives) for the purpose of ascertaining their ideas and wishes with regard to closer commercial union and tariff preference. This proposal has been indorsed by Lord Rosebery, the ex-premier and "independent" Liberal leader, but Mr. Balfour has re-

ceived it rather coldly—presumably because closer union involves protection, taxes on grain and meat, for which he is not prepared. It is doubtful whether an understanding exists between him and Mr. Chamberlain; at any rate, he adheres to his own narrow program of mere retaliation as a means of obtaining better terms for British exports.

In the next campaign, therefore, there will be three policies before the electorate: Retaliation and anti-“dumping” legislation, protection plus preference for the colonies (the Chamberlain scheme), and the preservation of free trade and “the open door.”

The imperial commission on British trade organized by Mr. Chamberlain has made its first report, limited to the iron and steel industry. Its conclusion had been foreseen and discounted. According to the commission, the industry in question is declining, relatively speaking, and is seriously threatened by American and German competition. The decline is attributed to the system of free imports, to the fact that foreign competitors have their respective home markets (high duties giving them a practical monopoly) and free entry into the British market besides. The remedy is declared to be a

tariff, or a system of tariffs comprising:

1. A low or conventional tariff varying from five to ten per cent, to apply to countries that offer reciprocal concessions.

2. A high or maximum tariff to be held “in terrorem” over commercially hostile nations and to be applied by way of retaliation.

3. A third or preferential tariff for the self-governing of British colonies that will approximate in time to free trade within the empire.

The opponents of the scheme point out that the low or medium tariff would be ineffectual, and that the industries it is intended to benefit would clamor for higher and higher duties; while so far as the colonies are concerned, they would hardly regard a preference as a gain over the free entry they now enjoy. It may be added that the report does not seem to have produced any deep impression. Very few of the manufacturers who testified advised or suggested protection though most of them complained that all was not well with the iron and steel industry.



### Physical Race Deterioration

It has been asserted that practically unrestricted immigration causes the physical and moral retrogression of the country which permits it. Whether this be true of the United States is a question upon which sociologists are by no means agreed. In Great Britain, where the alleged evil of hospitality to aliens is just beginning to attract parliamentary attention, the question of race deterioration has been carefully studied from another point of view. A departmental committee, in the light of much testimony from many sources, has reported that there is no positive proof of physical decline. It is admitted at the same time that urban congestion, bad housing and feeding, alcoholism and juvenile smoking are causes tending to destroy the vigor of great classes of the community. Proper nour-



A DIFFICULT POSITION FOR CHINA  
—From the *Minneapolis Journal*.

ishment in childhood is an obvious desideratum, and better housing of the artisans is scarcely less important.

Mr. Balfour, who delivered an address



GEN. H. C. CORBIN  
Appointed to command  
Department of the  
Philippines.

on the general subject before the British Association for the Advancement of Science, took a less optimistic view. He thought that education, struggles for higher social positions and the drift of the rural population toward the cities were causes of physical deterioration. It is neither possible nor desirable to establish caste and class

distinctions so as to prevent the rising of men from the lowest to the highest levels, but, in Mr. Balfour's opinion, this freedom of development is achieved at the cost of the "quality of the breed." Late marriages are a characteristic of the higher classes and a result of urban life, and since the most energetic part of the rural population is emigrating to the cities it follows that even in the country the burden of continuing the race is thrown on the less endowed and capable. Mr. Balfour is further quoted as saying: "I cannot see any escape from the rather melancholy conclusion that everything which opens up every career to a poor child of ability tends somewhat in the existing social conditions in the direction of deterioration of the race."

There are men of science who challenge the conventional view of race vigor and soundness, and who find nothing disquieting in the fact that "great height, exceptional chest growth, enormous muscular power, have become rather matters of curiosity" in our day. As Dr. A. A. Mumford says in a British review, "the

physical frame of man is to be regarded as a center for the distribution of energies and activities of an increasing degree of complexity on a mental and social rather than on a physical plane." The ideal is still "a sound mind in a sound body," but the definition of sound body may have been revised since the civilization of ancient Greece.



## Lynching Horrors Again

Georgia has been the scene of one of the most scandalous instances of mob vengeance and lynch law the country has known. The sickening details of the Statesboro holocaust have been given in the press dispatches, and will not be set forth here. It is sufficient to say that two negroes who had been tried for murder, convicted by a jury and sentenced to death were taken by a mob from the court house and burned at the stake in a public place—hundreds of men and women (and children?) witnessing the spectacle. It is admitted by the best citizens and newspapers of Georgia that there was no justification for this deed. There had been no delay, no miscarriage of justice, and there was no room for doubt as to the prompt execution of the legal sentence. The military precautions, unfortunately were farcically inadequate, and the mob had no difficulty in sweeping aside the few soldiers, defying the authorities (including the judge who pleaded with the lynchers to respect law and justice) and wreaking vengeance upon the prisoners. The mob, in truth was not seriously resisted.

Governor Terrell, who was not in the state at the time, has condemned the outrage in emphatic terms and pledged himself to bring the offenders to justice. His success will depend on public opinion as reflected by the grand jury; the trial juries, the prosecuting officers and the leading citizens generally. It is justly said in northern papers that Statesboro itself is on trial now, and this is true of

every community in which mob law is suffered to take root.

The question is not a sectional one, and the North is not in a position to throw stones at the South. But it is well to recognize that the remedy for the evil is the same in the South and in the North, and that it lies in moral education of the average man. Officials will do their duty when the community they serve will exact it and earnestly disapprove weakness and evasion and cowardice.

In commenting on an unsuccessful attempt at lynching at Hartford, Conn., the *Charleston News and Courier* said recently:

The mob remained under control and at bay because the show of resistance was not an idle pretence, but a purpose to die, if need be, in doing the right and the lawful thing. And it is not to be questioned that what was done by the authorities of Hartford may be done by the authorities of other cities and states. The laws are made at the instance of the people, and the people at heart desire to see them enforced. In their anger and under keen provocation they may forget in a moment of excitement the dictates of their better judgment, and seek to find in lawlessness a remedy for lawlessness. But the mob knows it is wrong, and it will ever display the cowardice which is born of a guilty conscience if forced to reflection by duly constituted authority. The police officers of Hartford did not fail to master the mob, and the police officers of South Carolina will not fail to do as much if they will once bring themselves to a more rigid administration of the laws and a less complacent consideration for those who would attempt to be lawless.

Police, district attorneys, juries, sheriffs and militia—all public functionaries, in short, will, as a rule, carry out the will and the consensus of the society they serve or represent. The appeal must be to public opinion.

## Great Strikes and Worse

It is said that labor troubles are a sign of prosperity. Men do not, as a rule, strike on "a falling market." When employment is scarce, when trade is slack and

production has to be restricted, workmen are resigned and quiet, if not satisfied. Only when "the job seeks the man" and work is abundant do men strike for more pay, a shorter day or better conditions generally.

This is the generally accepted view and it is plausible. But it does not account for recent and present strikes and disturbances. It does not explain the "beef strike," which originally involved nothing but a question of wages. It does not account for the building strike and lockout

in New York, the garment workers' strike against the "open shop" and several other disputes of moment which affect tens of thousands of employees, and entail severe loss on all concerned, including "the third party," the public. Hundreds of editors have urged workmen to refrain from striking at this unfavorable time, and a more convincing argument has been afforded by the failure of more than one hard-fought strike, yet new disputes occur almost daily and there is no sign of a truce.

With the ordinary accompaniments of the strike all are sufficiently and painfully familiar. Disorder, attacks upon non-union men, interference with property rights, injunctions and collisions between rioters and the police—it is scarcely possible to say anything new upon these phenomena. Theoretically these subjects are exhausted, though we are as far as ever from a practical remedy.

In the Colorado troubles new issues are presented, but unfortunately there is a manifest reluctance to come to close quarters with them. The whole situation was



GENERAL W. W.  
BLACKMAR  
Elected Commander  
of Grand Army  
of the Republic.

reviewed in these pages some time ago. Since then no improvement has taken place. After a brief pause the alliances in Cripple Creek, Victor and elsewhere resumed their wholesale deportations not alone of union miners, but of sympathizers with the strikers and their local and general organizations. Even professional men—lawyers, former state officials, etc.—and merchants have been seized and forcibly driven from the state on account of their avowed or supposed support of the striking and organized miners. Military law has been superseded, and the authorities of the state and the counties affected have not taken part in these summary and illegal deportations. But, if they do not approve of them, they have done nothing to put a stop to mob rule. The federal courts have been appealed to, however, and “due process of law” may be restored in Colorado. There may or may not be sufficient ground for executive intervention from Washington, but judicial intervention is easily invoked.

The law and the courts have to do with present conditions rather than with original causes or primary responsibilities. Thoughtful lay citizens may (and do) concern themselves with such causes, and from their point of view a thorough official inquiry into the extraordinary struggle is much to be desired. It is reported that agents of the Department of Commerce and Labor are investigating the trouble on the ground. There is no lack of precedent for such action.

Private inquiries have reached very different conclusions. Mr. Walter Wellman, a leading press correspondent, holds the Western Federation of Miners responsible, not only for the great strike, but for the outrages, assaults and assassinations that have followed it. On the other hand Mr. James H. Teller, Senator Teller's brother, writes to the *Chicago Public* that there is not a scintilla of evidence that the Western Federation of Miners has planned or encouraged murder, train-wrecking or any other form of violence

in connection with the strike. “It is a suggestive fact,” says Mr. Teller, “that the mine owners, with all the powers of military government in their hands for nine months, have not convicted a single member of the miner's union of an offense against either life or property.”

Such bewildering conflict of testimony emphasizes the need of a searching and impartial inquiry into the Colorado situation, which is a melancholy commentary on American order and liberty.



### The Tzar's Reform Manifesto

Political and administrative reform is inevitable in Russia, as we have pointed out heretofore, first because any change must be an improvement, the lowest depths of reaction having been sounded, and second because the war with Japan has disclosed the inefficiency and danger of the present system of autocracy and bureaucracy. Western criticism has not had its effect, and the sympathy for Japan in Great Britain and America, a real surprise to the czar and his advisers, has been even more eye-opening and enlightening.

Several steps toward liberalism have been taken by the Russian government within the last few months. The anti-Jewish restrictive legislation has been relaxed somewhat; punishment by adminis-



WHAT WILL HE DO FOR RUSSIA

—From the *Ohio State Journal*.

trative decree, except in some classes of cases, has been abolished and the attacks on the provincial assemblies or county councils have been suspended.

When the birth of an heir to the Russian throne was announced expectations of more substantial reforms were aroused in certain quarters. It is customary on such occasions to proclaim amnesty, remit taxes and make other "gifts" to the subjects, but something more permanent than this was looked for. The czar's manifesto is disappointing to those who have believed him to be liberal and progressive at heart and cognizant of the real needs of his empire.. It is not entirely devoid of lasting and substantial reforms, however. The list in full is as follows:

Abolishes corporal punishment among the rural classes and for first offense among the sea and land forces.

Remits arrears due the state for the purchase of land and other direct imposts.

Sets apart \$1,500,000 from the state funds for the purpose of forming an inalienable fund for the benefit of landless people of Finland.

Grants amnesty to those Finlanders who have emigrated without authorization.

Remits the fines imposed upon the rural and urban communes of Finland which refused to submit to military conscription in 1902 and 1903.

Remits the fines imposed upon the Jewish communes in the cases of Jews avoiding military service.

Provides for a general reduction in sentences for common law offenses

A general amnesty is accorded in the case of all political offenses with the ex-

ception of those in which murder has been done.

Acts of grace aside, the manifesto is important chiefly on account of its first clause. The abolition of corporal punishment among the peasants has for years been advocated as a measure of elementary civilization and decency. Count Tostoi has demanded it in the name of human dignity and the religion professed by the government, while the Liberals have regarded the reform as an act of fundamental justice to the overwhelming majority of the population. The peasants, it should be borne in mind, are governed under a peculiar code. They do not enjoy equal rights and immunities with other classes. The abolition of corporal punishment does not confer full equality upon them, but it is a step in that direction.

Had the czar been disposed to yield to the practically universal demand of educated and unofficial Russia for greater personal and political liberty, for popular participation in the government of the country and for the adoption of some form of representative institutions, the birth of an heir would have been hailed as the most auspicious occasion for the inauguration of such reforms. Again the czar might have enlarged the scope of the zemstvos (provincial assemblies) or freed the press from the galling restrictions of the censorship and the arbitrary interference of the ministry of the interior. None of these things was done, and the inference is a natural one that the czar is not in sympathy with the aspirations and hopes of cultured and advanced Russia. "Reform from above" alone can save Russia from disturbances, conflicts and suffering which attend revolutionary movements and "reform from below."



## Contraband and Right of Search

The Russo-Japanese war has already given rise to a number of important legal and diplomatic problems. After its close an international conference, if not several



GOLF IN MANCHURIA

Nearing the last hole.

—From the Cleveland Plain Dealer.

conferences, will have to be called to solve them in accordance with the interests of civilization and the laws of nations. So grave are some of these problems that, but for the extreme necessity of peace felt by the great western powers, they might have led to disastrous conflicts.

Under what conditions is the right to search to be exercised on the high seas by belligerents?

What is contraband of war, and what is merely "conditional contraband"?

Must vessels carrying contraband be taken to some port of the belligerent capturing them, or may they be sunk under certain conditions?

What vessels may exercise the right of search, and when is the vessel of a belligerent claiming this right committing an act of piracy?

How long may warships of a belligerent remain in a neutral port when they are so damaged as to be unseaworthy?

May one belligerent enter a neutral port and capture a dismantled warship of the other belligerent, its enemy?

How far does wireless telegraphy require revision of the rules of neutrality and contraband?

The recent exciting and sensational controversies between Russia and neutral powers, and the charges of violation of international law so freely bandied by Russia and Japan, involve these questions. Some writers go so far as to say that international law is a mockery, and that might makes right in all such matters. It must be admitted that in the stress and heat of war things are done which impartial nations find it impossible to approve. But it is generally felt that the neutral of today may be the belligerent of tomorrow, and that the real difficulty is to reconcile the requirements of peaceable commerce and trade with the necessities of war.

Russia has been blamed for violating the treaty of Paris closing the Dardanelles to men-of-war, but it is recognized even by her critics that the treaty is oppres-

sive and unjust. If the attempt to convert steamers of the volunteer fleet into war vessels by a transparent trick is censurable, her reluctance to submit to the treaty itself is felt to be altogether natural.

But the question which presents the greatest difficulty is the definition and treatment of conditional contraband. Shortly after the commencement of the hostilities Russia announced that coal, cotton and food-stuffs intended for Japan would be treated as contraband. Against this view Great Britain and the United States have vigorously protested. The position of the United States was set forth in a circular issued by our State Department to our representatives abroad. Here are its salient passages:

In the war between the United States and Spain the Navy Department General Orders No. 492, issued June 20, 1898, declared, in Article 19, as follows: "The term contraband of war comprehends only articles having a belligerent destination." Among articles absolutely contraband it declared ordnance, machine-guns, and other articles of military or naval warfare. It declared as conditional contraband "coal, when destined for a naval station, a port of call, or a ship or ships of the enemy." It likewise declared provisions to be contraband "when destined for the enemy's ship or ships, or for a place that is besieged."

Coal and other fuel and cotton are employed for a great many innocent pur-



DAVID AND GOLIATH

—From the *Tokio Jiji Shimpō*

poses. Many nations are dependent on them for the conduct of inoffensive industries, and no sufficient presumption of an intended warlike use seems to be afforded by the mere fact of their destination to a belligerent port. The recognition in principle of the treatment of coal and other fuel and raw cotton as absolutely contraband of war might ultimately lead to a total inhibition of the sale by neutrals to the people of belligerent states of all articles which could be finally converted to military uses. Such an extension of the principle by treating coal and all other fuel and raw cotton as absolutely contraband of war simply because they are shipped by a neutral to a non-blockaded port of a belligerent would not appear to be in accord with the reasonable and lawful rights of a neutral commerce.

Unfortunately, it is not easy to determine when "conditional contraband" is destined for military use and when for the use of noncombatants. Coal for the use of warships is undoubtedly contraband, but coal for the use of a factory in Japan is not. Upon whom rests the burden of proof in such a case—upon the consignee, or upon the belligerent seeking to confiscate the cargo? Russia has not receded from her position, and the controversy is still open. She further insists that she may sink a vessel carrying contraband when it is highly inconvenient to take it to a port, and England strenuously denies this right.

The establishment by Russia of a wireless telegraph station at Chefoo, and the use of Chinese ports by ships driven from Port Arthur, involve the whole question of the neutrality of China. The position of the "celestial empire," indeed, is wholly unique and anomalous. The war is carried on by two outsiders on its territory, and though she is supposed to be neutral China has not the means and strength requisite for the enforcement of her neutrality. Russia alleges that Japan has repeatedly violated the principle of Chinese neutrality and reopened the whole question as to the integrity of the middle kingdom and the open door.

Japan retorts that Russia has been the first offender in this respect, and that her protest is insincere and ludicrous. The bystanders feel that neither belligerent is without fault, but to make any move is to let loose a Pandora's box of evils. The situation bristles with dangers, perhaps more so than in February last, when the alarming possibility of an extension of the war into Europe was the universal subject of discussion. But the powers will overlook a great many irregularities and sins

on the part of the belligerents for the sake of the (unstable) European equilibrium.



EDMUND JAMES  
JAMES  
Elected president  
of the University  
of Illinois.

### What the Paragraphers Say

A BRIGHT ANSWER.—How soon will the Cleveland group plan be a reality?"

"Just as soon as the buildings get together."  
—*Cleveland Plain Dealer*.

An aid to those who are following the war: If the place is on the Chinese coast, remember the number of your laundry ticket, multiply by six, subtract what is left, and find the puzzle. If a Russian name, add three portions, sneeze, cross your fingers, and forget it.—*New Orleans Times-Democrat*.

"Well," said the New Yorker, tauntingly, "You don't see any grass growing in our streets."

"That's so," replied the Philadelphian, "clever scheme of yours."

"What's that?"

"To keep tearing your streets up so the grass can't grow."—*Philadelphia Press*.

PAINFULLY DEFICIENT.—"I was going to send my son to the Uptodate University, under the impression that it was a first class educational institution."

"And isn't it?"

"Why, no. According to this report it needs about \$8,000,000 before it can even begin to do the work it ought to do."—*Brooklyn Life*.





## The Afterglow of the Revolution

By Frederic Austin Ogg

University of Indiana. Author of "Saxon and Slav."

**I**T is a mistake to look upon the Revolution in France as a movement by any one class, or in the interest of any one class. The peasantry suffered most from the Old Régime and profited most by the transition to the new, modern system, but it was very far from being the peasantry alone that performed the work of revolution. It is not difficult to see that the average dependent tenant on some lord's estate, or even the nominally independent cultivator of his own little tract of ground, was hardly in a position to make himself felt in the affairs of the nation. He could not do so at all in times of peace, and even for the day of revolution he was ill-prepared. He bore an unmeasured grudge against the government, the greedy nobles, and the pharisaical clergy, so that by temperament he was ready for violence and destruction. But he was unarmed, undisciplined, leaderless, and ignorant of how to proceed. It was not the rural peasantry that precipitated the Revolution, but rather the great swarm of malcontents of various social grades that by 1789 had fairly sub-

merged the old city of Paris, flocking thither from all parts of France in quest of employment or offices or benevolences which were not to be had. These were the people who began the Revolution, and for the most part it was they who completed it. Here and there the peasants in the outlying districts were stirred to action, but that, for all practical purposes, "Paris was France" remained as true in revolution as under the rule of the Bourbon. Yet, as we shall see, the Paris mob assaulting the Bastille, defying the king in the streets of Versailles, and guillotining the tyrannical nobles, was fighting as truly in the interests of all the common people of France as if these same people had themselves been active participants.

It must at least be granted that the revolutionists had the most far-reaching plans and purposes. Long before 1789 the idea had been prevalent that for France was reserved the stupendous task of achieving the blessings of liberty, not for herself alone but also for all other peoples of Europe, and perhaps even for those of America and Asia and Africa.

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This is the second of a series of nine articles on "Social Progress in Europe." The complete list in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Some Features of the Old Régime (September).

The Afterglow of the Revolution (October).

The Republican Revival (November).

England and the Industrial Revolution (December).

England During the Victorian Era (January).

Recent Social Movements in the Romance Countries (February).

Germany and the Progress of Socialism (March).

Social and Industrial Russia (April).

The Rumbblings of Russian Discontent (May).

"France," declared the father of Mirabeau thirty years before the fall of the Bastille, "must become the arbiter of the world, that she may insure the happiness of all people; she must destroy exclusive privileges, and leave nature and honest toil to bring felicity." All through the long reign of Louis XV the most extraordinary visions of spectacular happiness were being entertained by the sanguine French; and when finally the time came to rally to the standard of liberty, equality, and fraternity the revolutionists were ready to attack no less formidable a task than the complete displacing of an old social and political order by one that was absolutely new and untried. "In order to regret the past," a French publicist had written in 1772, "one must be ignorant of what it was." Those who led in the revolution of 1789 knew full well what the past had been, and hence they did not regret it. "We had no regret for the past," wrote Ségur in his *Mémoires*, "and no inquietude for the future. What was ancient appeared to us wearisome and ridiculous. We believed that we were entering a golden age of which past centuries gave no idea, and in the future we saw only the good that could be secured for humanity by the reign of reason. We were disciples of new doctrines; the prejudices and pedantry of old customs seemed absurd. It was impossible that we should not receive with enthusiasm the hopes which men of genius held out to us of a future where humanity, tolerance, and liberty should reign instead of the errors, follies, and prejudices which had so long enslaved and embittered the world. We were soothed by the seductive dreams of a philosophy that sought to assure the happiness of the race. Voltaire charmed our intelligence, and Rousseau touched our hearts." "The chiefs of the Revolution," declared another contemporary, "imagined that they were assembled to retrieve every fault of the past, to correct every error of the human mind, and to secure the happiness

of future generations; doubt had no place in their minds and infallibility presided perpetually over all their contradictory decrees."

It was therefore not merely because conditions of livelihood had for many become unbearable that the people of France broke out in revolution, but also because they had before them a grand ideal of society which they were foolish enough to think they could actualize by war and violence. Though Sully declared that "the people never revolt from fickleness, or the mere desire of change; it is the impatience of suffering which alone has this effect," nothing can be plainer than that the roseate spectacles through which the revolutionists looked at the future had much to do with their zeal in the cause of reform.

From the standpoint of all classes concerned, the great achievement of the Revolution was the abolition of "privilege." The aim of the people was equality—equality at least in opportunity and in standing before the law. The enormous advantages enjoyed by the two privileged orders, the nobles and the clergy, at the expense of the bourgeoisie and peasantry have already been considered. These, it was determined, must be brought to an end. They were mere relics of feudalism and had no reason whatever for existence in eighteenth century Europe. Accordingly, after the Third Estate had asserted successfully its just claim to represent the nation, through the medium of the revived States General, it at once set about the work of recasting society and government in accordance with the popular desires. First the States General converted itself into the National Assembly, on the plan of a modern parliament; then this new body addressed itself to the work of framing a new constitution for the realm; and long before this task was completed it went on to the equalizing of citizenship by the abolition of privilege. It is a noteworthy fact that in the Assembly the motion for immediate

abolition was made, not by a commoner, nor even because of the pressure of the commons, but by a young noble who had recently served in the American war of independence and had acquired an unusual sympathy with men everywhere who were ready to do battle in the sacred



DUKE OF WELLINGTON

cause of liberty. A single night session—that of August 4, 1789—sufficed to sweep away privileges which had been centuries in becoming established. The nobles in the Assembly vied with one another in proposing sacrifices to be made in the interest of the people. Game laws, tithes, sinecures and pensions, exclusive right of command in the army, and a host of other privileges and rights of imposition enjoyed by the nobles and clergy were abolished forever. The work was done with reckless haste, the scene being well described by Mirabeau as “an orgy of sacrifice,” but it was far better done that way than not at all and it has never needed to be done again. Inasmuch as this famous night of August 4 saw the end of feudalism and of legal inequalities in France, it well deserves to be considered the central point of the Revolution.

Its importance as a mile stone in the progress of the people of Europe can hardly be exaggerated.

During the ensuing month the Assembly went on to do away with titles of nobility, clerical corporations, trade guilds, the administrative system, the fiscal system, the division of the country into provinces, and finally the monarchy itself. Some of these measures proved permanent, others of them only temporary. But after August, 1789, there never was a restoration of the Old Régime in its entirety; and the parts that were not restored were the feudal burdens and tax inequalities from which the peasants had so long suffered and had so recently been delivered. To the ordinary French countryman it mattered far less whether the state were governed on the monarchical or the republican plan than whether a neighboring lord could drive his hounds at random over the poor man's crops or compel him to labor on a road or a ditch just when his little field of wheat was going to waste for the lack of harvesting. Hence, despite all the vicissitudes through which the French government passed between 1789 and 1830, the common people had better conditions of living than their ancestors had enjoyed for many centuries. The improvement of largest significance was the conversion of the rural tenants into a vast independent class of free-holders. Hundreds of the great nobles perished in the revolutionary struggle and their estates were eventually divided up among their erstwhile dependents. The vast body of land that formerly belonged to the Church was appropriated by the State and sold, a measure by which the number of peasant proprietors was much enlarged. The wages received by ordinary laborers, too, were increased to two or three times the rate prevailing a decade before. The country people, freed from unjust taxes and feudal dues, made rapid advance in possessions and economic independence. They built better homes, wore better

clothes, ate better food, and had more time to think of education, religion, and the higher life in general. New energies were displayed and material prosperity began to presage a new era morally and intellectually for the French people. Altogether there was a social revolution of mighty proportions, and as has been well said, "one that could never go backward." It would be a mistake, however, to think of this great change as being made rapidly. It might have been, had not the emancipation of the masses been followed so speedily by the long and bloody Napoleonic wars which wrought ruin in many parts of the land. During these wars there was little progress and even a good deal of retrogression. Buildings decayed or were destroyed; the roads became impassable and were infested by brigands; commerce visibly declined; elementary education was neglected; and it is said that in certain districts a third of the population lived by begging and stealing. Nevertheless, though retarded on every side by the turmoil of the times, the betterment of large portions of the common people went steadily on, and by the end of the second decade of the nineteenth century the degree of progress which had been made was easy to be observed.

The principles of the new order established by the Revolution may be summarized as the sovereignty of the people, the supremacy of the law, the responsibility of public officials, liberty of thought, of person, and of the press, security of property, proportional taxation, and the right of every citizen to have a part in the making of the law, and to control the assessment of taxes and the appropriation of public funds. All these are the axioms of the modern democratic state. Together they embodied the ideal of modern France, and her history from that day to this has been that of a century-long attempt to realize in practice what a week or two had sufficed to elaborate in theory.

The constitution of 1791 set up a constitutional government, with its legislative functions vested in a representative assembly, with a property qualification for both members and electors. This soon came to be considered too undemocratic; hence after the insurrection of August 10, 1792, a new constitution was



NAPOLÉON

drawn up providing for manhood suffrage and a direct vote of the people on laws proposed by the Assembly. This new constitution never really went into effect, for already reactionary influences were at work and the despotism of the Committee of Public Safety was starting the train of centralization which was to culminate in the régime of Napoleon. It was not long until all the airy dreams of the leaders of 1789 were wrecked. After the Revolution the people of France were found to be still divided, as they had been before, into a number of groups representing the most diverse and irreconcilable interests. That which had been heralded far and wide as the "general will" was proved to be not even that of the majority,

but only that of the faction which at any moment might show itself the strongest and the least scrupulous. Instead of a homogeneous body of equal and fraternal patriots there existed a number of social and political groups—monarchists and republicans, clergy and constitution-



COLUMN VENDOME, PARIS

Made from cannon captured by Napoleon I.

alists, officials and private citizens—whose differences were so fundamental as even to forbid compromise. The idealists, failing to realize their expectations, concluded, not that their theories were ill-founded or their application defective, but that their opponents were at once irrational and wicked. In theory the doctrine of the sovereignty of the people was still maintained, but "the people" were now defined as simply those who belonged to the dominant faction. The rest were traitors, or at least obstructionists, against whom no measures could be too severe. "We will make a graveyard of France," said Carrier, "rather than fail to regenerate her according to our ideas." It was this spirit that plunged the unhappy country into a Reign of Terror and pre-

pared the way for Napoleon to mount to authority on the wreckage of intestine strife.

During the earlier course of the Revolution the English philosopher Edmund Burke expressed the opinion that if the republican experiment in France should fail it would be followed by the rise of "the most complete arbitrary power that has ever appeared on earth." In a very large measure at least, the prophecy was fulfilled in the career of Napoleon. With the rise of this consummate genius to the position of arbiter of France's destinies, the day of idealism was left behind and that of practical and militant statesmanship was inaugurated. Napoleon had passed through the Revolution without a shred of sympathy with its great ideal. The one thing of value he saw in the movement was the opening which it gave to men of talent like himself, who otherwise might have found it difficult to let the world know their power. This was what he so often spoke of as "*La carrière ouverte aux talents.*" He had no use for the "idle vaporings" of philosophy. He called Rousseau a madman and was done with him. He cared not a whit for the rallying cry of liberty, equality, and fraternity, for he did not believe human society capable of being constructed on such a plan, and he flatly declared that in his opinion the French did not really love either liberty or equality. For a decade the idealists and dreamers had occupied the seats of authority. If their claims were good, they should be justified by their works. The disorganized and helpless state of France when the First Consul assumed his place of virtual autocracy was quite enough to convince him that the whole régime of the philosophers and experimenters was hopelessly mistaken.

Not that Napoleon regretted that the Revolution had occurred, or wished to restore France to her former condition. He realized as well as any one of us can now that it had most admirably pre-

pared the way for him. This it had done not merely by setting aside the Bourbon monarchy and thus unwittingly leaving the field clear for a new monarchy, but in an even larger sense by accomplishing reforms in which Napoleon heartily concurred, but which he would have regretted to be under the necessity of undertaking himself. The basis upon which he desired to build was not the Old Régime, but the new order as established in 1789, with the last vestiges of feudalism destroyed and with a new and larger opportunity for the common people of France to be happy and prosperous. He understood that for the state to be strong its citizens must be contented and their labors productive. Many a king's minister in the olden days had perceived this just as clearly, but had been utterly unable to cope with the powers that stood in the way of the people's happiness and loyalty. The Revolution had swept away all obstacles, and all that Napoleon had to do was simply to begin on the new foundations which, though laid in violence, were right and destined to be perpetual.

The equality to which Napoleon was devoted involved, therefore, no vague abstractions as to whether men are born free and equal and such other much discussed aphorisms, but it meant that the special class privileges which had been abolished should remain abolished and that there should be a general and free competition among citizens of all ranks for offices and honors and success. Men would still be unequal socially and intellectually, but in all respects equal in the law. There would still be rich and poor, learned and unlearned, industrious and lazy, good and bad. But this should not be allowed to work any cleavage in the solid ranks of citizenship. Public burdens should fall upon all, public rewards be open to all. Birth and political antecedents were to be of no consequence. "The old idea of vested property interests in public office, so that one might buy and sell and inherit

a judgeship, for instance, had disappeared; and all sinecure offices, so numerous under Louis XVI, had also been destroyed." This was the plan of the practical statesman—the man who cared little for beliefs but wanted the work of the State done effectively; and it must be said that in his own administration the great sovereign remained for the most part true to it in practice.

A few other features of the Napoleonic régime bearing upon the condition of the common people demand brief attention. In the first place, it may be noted that the burden of taxation was reduced to a



ARCH OF TRIUMPH, PARIS

Commemorating the victories of the revolutionary wars.

degree such as France had not known for many a century. During the interval between 1789 and 1800 French finances had fallen into hopeless confusion, but Napoleon very quickly straightened out the tangle. The result was that under the new order the ordinary countryman paid not more than twenty-one per cent of his income in taxes, as against the eighty-one per cent for taxes and feudal dues prior to the Revolution. Moreover the new

taxes were levied equitably and collected with the least possible annoyance to the payers. Under the autocracy which prevailed the people had no more share in levying their own taxes and appropriating the revenues to the public ends than they had under the Bourbons, but the most gratifying relief from their old burdens made them quite indifferent to political inactivity.

Jury trial, established in 1789, was retained in criminal cases, though the jurors were required to be selected only from the educated and competent citizens, and the system could be at any time suspended by a decree of the Senate. Freedom of the press Napoleon could not bring himself to uphold. "If I were to reestablish the liberty of the press," he declared, "I should immediately have thirty Royalist journals and as many Jacobin, and I should have to govern with a minority." Hence the censorship was exercised with strictness and any publication "contrary to the duties of subjects toward the Sovereign and the security of the State" was promptly suppressed. Closely parallel with this was the emperor's policy of education. "In the establishment of a teaching body," he said, "my principal aim is to have a means of directing political and moral opinions; for so long as people are not taught from their childhood whether they are to be republicans or monarchists, Catholics or free-thinkers, the state will not form a nation; it will rest on vague and uncertain bases, and be constantly subject to change and disorder." With such an idea, that education should be simply a drill for the production of efficient subjects, Napoleon set up a great system of schools, capped by the University of Paris, and provided for the minutest regulation of teachers and curriculum by a centralized Council of Education. "All the schools of the University," it was ordered, "will take as the basis of their instruction fidelity to the Emperor, to the imperial monarchy, the guardian of the happiness of the nation,

and to the Napoleonic dynasty, the preserver of the unity of France and of all the liberal ideas proclaimed by the constitutions." And this same practical spirit was carried down through the entire educational hierarchy, even to the lowest elementary schools. Mathematics, for example, was encouraged because of its utility; the classics, for the sake of the examples of discipline found in the annals of Sparta and Rome; but all speculative subjects and all culture of which liberty is an essential condition, so far as regulation could suppress it, was suppressed.

From all this it appears that, while the institutions of the Napoleonic régime were vastly more favorable to popular progress and prosperity than had been those of the ante-revolutionary days, the state of things was still very far from ideal. "I swear," declared Napoleon, and he probably meant it, "that I do nothing except for France; I have nothing in view but her advantage." At the same time, as his ambition grew he departed farther and farther from the interests of the nation, and even from the first his methods were those of an unmasked despot. He did not destroy liberty, for when he appeared on the scene there was no liberty left to destroy. He simply set up an autocracy where before anarchy had prevailed. Anything was better than anarchy, and hence the people had at first welcomed his ascendancy. But as time went on his popularity waned and though it was not by the people's will, but rather by the power of foreign bayonets, that he was eventually overthrown, when Waterloo came there were far fewer men ready to stand by him in his adversity than there might have been if only his authority had been exercised less arbitrarily.

It is important to observe that the results of the Revolution and the Napoleonic régime were far from being confined to France. True to their large purpose of renovating all Europe, the revolutionary leaders put forth no little effort

between 1789 and 1795 to arouse the people of Spain, Italy, Austria, and Prussia to throw off their monarchical governments and set up a new order of freedom and equality. The exigencies of the struggle at home, however, seriously interfered with the revolutionists' crusading schemes. Moreover the neighboring peoples were not easily aroused. Among some of them, particularly the Prussians, conditions were just about as bad as they had ever been in France, but the people lacked the fiery enthusiasm and unreasoning daring of the French and were disposed to remain quiescent and endure their wrong. Consequently the Revolution itself in France affected outside countries but little. The regeneration of these did not come until the time of Napoleon, and it came then not as a result of any great popular uprising but simply in the course of the emperor's effort to apply to all his conquered territory the new régime which the Revolution had inaugurated in France. Some of this conquered territory was annexed to France, some was not, but in either case the result was the same. Belgium, Savoy, and the Rhenish provinces were annexed and all feudal obligations and tax inequalities in them were at once abolished. In 1810, when the North German coast was annexed, the decree introducing free tenure of land enumerated thirty-six forms of feudal service which were abolished without compensation. Other regions, as the Rhenish Federation and the kingdom of Italy, which was merely dependent upon Napoleon's empire without actually being made a part of it, underwent a similar change. And the same might be said of certain western states—chiefly in Germany—which merely bore the shock of Napoleon's wars without even being completely subjugated. "The armies which marched and remarched over the soil of Europe," says Professor Judson, "carried liberal ideas with them as birds do the seeds by which vegetation is so widely disseminated. The

French soldiers were missionaries of democracy wherever they went."

By the temporary universal dominance of Napoleon in the western half of the continent he was enabled to apply the cardinal features of the new order in France to half a score of states that sooner or later regained their old independence. But the important thing is that in all these



BATTLE OF WATERLOO

cases, without exception, the social transformation wrought by the decree of the emperor became so thorough that it could never be undone. Equality—such equality as has been described in France—became the rule of Belgium and Switzerland and Italy and Savoy and a score of the German states, and remained so after the power of Napoleon had been forever swept from the face of Europe.

In Prussia the change was especially striking. Here serfdom and feudalism had survived more than in any other part of Europe, and civil equality had been a



thing unknown. The old law had recognized three social classes—peasants, bourgeoisie, and nobles—and had practically forbidden an individual to pass from one class into another. Even the system of land tenure was rigidly bound up with this social hierarchy; no noble could sell land to a citizen of a town, or vice versa: nor could a townsman sell to a peasant.

The Napoleonic era saw all this changed, and singularly enough, not by French agents either. It was the great minister Stein who discerned the good in Napoleon's system and influenced the government to apply it to Prussia. In October, 1807, the work was begun by the promulgation of a royal decree intended to "remove every obstacle that had hitherto prevented the individual from attaining such a degree of prosperity as he was capable of reaching." The serfs were changed into free peasant proprietors; feudal remains were entirely obliterated; the caste system of society was done away with; and a considerable measure of self-government was vested in many towns. These great reforms, together with the consolidating of the eighteen hundred German states into about forty, prepared the way directly for the renaissance of German influence in European affairs, and more particularly for the leadership of Prussia so splendidly vindicated half a century later. This voluntary adoption of the social order created by the Revolution and preserved by Napoleon was perhaps the highest tribute which a jealous people could pay to the achievements of the volatile French.

There was, in fact, no part of Europe, except the possessions of the Turk, which remained untouched by the spirit of the Revolution. Austria and England were comparatively little affected, yet in both these countries the trend had for some time been toward a larger popular freedom, and ultimately both yielded to the forces of democracy which they vainly thought they were destroying at Waterloo. Even in Russia the faint beginnings

of liberalism are to be traced to the influence of the revolutionary transformation in the west. The Revolution appeared to many of its survivors to have been a failure. Certainly only a few of its grand ideals had been realized. It had set out to create a great democratic commonwealth in France and then to duplicate the work in Spain and Austria and Germany; it had wound up by enthroning a despotism as thorough as Europe ever knew. Yet in truth its largest purposes had been realized. It had failed to do away with autocratic government, but it had succeeded in doing what was far more important, namely, it had wrought out a condition of society which represented an incalculable gain to the great masses of the people. Autocracy might yet be made an end of, but even if it were not it could no longer bear upon the people with its former severity. The happiest feature of the Revolution lay in the fact that it touched the lives of the masses. It brought relief to the commonest man—freedom from feudal burdens, relief from unjust taxation, a better opportunity to secure fair treatment in the courts, a higher scale of wages, and a less arbitrary schedule of living expenses. These things once gained were never entirely lost; for though, as we shall see in the ensuing chapter, the forces of aristocratic reaction struggled desperately to set the people of Europe back into their station in 1789, the attempt was largely fruitless and the lower strata of society were scarcely affected. Out of reason and violence, argument and bloodshed, a new Europe had been created and one whose foundations were too securely laid in the aroused popular will to be capable of subversion.

#### TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- I. Relation of the peasantry to the French Revolution.
- II. The larger ideals of the revolutionists.
- III. The abolition of "privilege."
  1. The famous Assembly session of August 4, 1789.
  2. Later work of the Assembly.
- IV. The improvement of rural life after the Revolution.
  1. Relief from feudal dues and extortionate taxation.



THE FUNERAL CAR OF NAPOLEON

2. The peasants become land-owners.
- V. The failure of the revolutionists' ideals.
- VI. Napoleon and the work of the Revolution.
  1. Indifferent to the idealists.
  2. Ready to accept the results of 1789.
  3. Napoleon's interpretation of "equality."
  4. Public finances.
  5. Freedom of the press and education.
  6. A system of autocracy.
- VII. Results of the Revolution outside of France.
  1. Napoleon's conquests facilitated spread of the new régime.
  2. The change in Prussia.
- VIII. The Revolution a success in its better purposes.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What relations did the peasants sustain towards the Revolution and why? 2. Who were the people who began the Revolution? 3. How did the Revolutionists look upon the past and the future? 4. In what respect were their views false? 5. What was the first body organized by the Revolutionists? 6. What was its first important work? 7. Why was the night of August 4, 1789, very significant? 8. How did the condition of the peasants improve as a result of the Revolution? 9. What effect had the Napoleonic wars upon their progress? 10. What were the principles of the new order established by the Revolution? 11. Why was the constitution of 1791 considered insufficient? 12. Why did the constitution of 1792 never really go into effect? 13. What plunged France into a Reign of Terror? 14. What was Burke's prophecy respecting the Revolution? 15. What was Napoleon's view of the Revolution? 16. What was Napoleon's general idea of the needs of the State? 17. Why did the common people acquiesce in the rule of Napoleon? 18. How did he regulate trial by jury? 19. What

was his attitude toward the press? 20. How did Napoleon's educational system express his ideas? 21. Why did the Revolution itself affect outside countries but little? 22. How were these countries influenced by Napoleon's conquests? 23. How does Prussia illustrate the influence of Napoleon? 24. In what ways was the Revolution a failure? 25. In what ways a success?

## SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What aged empire was brought to an end by Napoleon's German conquests? 2. What famous agreement, still in force, was reached between Napoleon and the Pope? 3. What was the "Code Napoleon"? 4. Give an account of the career of Stein? 5. Who was King of Prussia in Napoleon's time?

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

Most of the books referred to in connection with the preceding chapter in this series will be of service for study of the subjects treated in the present one. For good brief accounts the reader will do well to consult West, "Modern History," pp. 323-382; Robinson, "Western Europe," pp. 574-624; Judson, "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," ch. IV; and Schwill, "History of Modern Europe," pp. 266-332. Larger works of importance are Stephens' "Revolutionary Europe, 1789-1815"; Rose's "Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era"; and Fyffe's "Modern Europe," pp. 135-367. Andrews's "Modern Europe," vol. I, pp. 37-85, is excellent, as is also Dickinson's "Revolution and Reaction," Chap. II. Of the numerous lives of Napoleon, the best for general use is Rose's "Napoleon the First." Seeley's "Life and Times of Stein" gives a full account of Germany and Prussia in this period. Finally, Taine's "Modern Régime" may be mentioned as a vast repository of facts respecting European life after the Revolution, similar to the "Ancient Régime" for the earlier period.



## Twentieth Century Belgium

By Clare de Graffenried

**B**ETWEEN feudal and modern Belgium no better link exists than the great city of Antwerp. A port of the first importance, with the deep open harbor of the Shelde, Antwerp is also the strongest fortified metropolis in Europe. Essentially of the twentieth century are its extensive ramparts, easily flooded at will, thus cutting off all but amphibious foes; its broad avenues, fine picture gallery, state institute of commerce, and its three-mile frontage of quays, where more than thirty steamship lines have permanent docks. A web of canals connects the Shelde with the Rhine and Meuse, penetrating even to France. The great exposition held a few years ago was only a revival of the town's ancient fairs, attended by merchants from abroad, as Nijni Novgorod is today. Guilds flourished, each of which had its own house in the beautiful style of domestic architecture of that period, and markets were numerous, bartering going on under the very eaves of the cathedral. In fact, it is only from the glove market that a view of the west front of that noble church can be had; and here we leap at once to Antwerp's

romantic past, for Quentin Matsys made the wrought iron canopy of the old well, topping it with a statue of the Flemish David, Silvius Brabo, who cut off the hand of the mythical giant Antigonus and forever stopped that robber from taking toll of vessels on the Shelde under penalty of cutting off the skipper's hand.

Antwerp early in the reign of Charles V rivaled Venice, since the Atlantic rather than the Mediterranean became the high-way to America. Almost a thousand foreign trading firms established themselves, books were printed, new ideas found favor, and the persecuted of other lands received hospitality. William Tyndale, driven from England, began to publish the Old Testament in Antwerp, but became a target for the Inquisition, and its victim in 1536, when he was strangled and burned at Vilvorde, near by. Emperor Charles would not tolerate heresy and Antwerp had more than its share of Spanish cruelties, tortures, and auto-da-fés in the Place Verte, hideous evidence of which is preserved in the old castle of the Brabant dukes, the Steen, where the Inquisition sat. Philip II and Alva

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This is the second of a series of nine articles entitled "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany." The complete list in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

The Belgium of Charles the Bold and Philip II, by Clare de Graffenried (September).

Twentieth Century Belgium, by Clare de Graffenried (October).

Hanover, Hildesheim and Brunswick, by Clara M. Stearns (November).

What Berlin Offers, by Professor Otto Heller (December).

Hamburg, Keil and Lübeck, by Wolf von Schierbrand (January).

Munich: the City on the Isar, by N. Hudson Moore (February).

Weimar, by Prof. Robert W. Deering (March). University Life (April).

Town and Country Byways, by Clara M. Stearns (May).

wreaked special vengeance on this trade mart of the justly rebellious Flemings—greatest in commerce and greatest in the number of its stately medieval buildings, over nine hundred of which the Spanish soldiers burned in 1576 when eight thousand citizens were massacred and many thousands left the city.

The ruin thus begun was completed by the fourteen months' siege of Philip's governor, Alexander of Parma, in 1584-85, followed by the awful destruction of "the Spanish Fury" after which 30,000 people fled for their lives. Hence it is that this feudal stronghold, Antwerp, now possesses only two medieval buildings, the Cathedral and the Steen. The beautiful town hall was replaced by a weak renaissance structure, redeemed in modern times by its striking interior decorations done in Flemish archaic style by Baron Leys. To add to the sad plight of the doomed city, the Dutch, unhappily estranged, built forts at the mouth of the Shelde and refused entrance to any craft. All sea-going ships were compelled to load and unload at Dutch ports; and for two centuries Antwerp sank into commercial neglect.

Only art survived—fostered to some extent by Philip's successors, Clara Isabella and Albert, who, with abundant piety but scant taste, rebuilt the churches and public meeting places of the kingdom in the overlaiden rococo style, and encouraged artists, naming Rubens court

painter, and permitting him to live out of Brussels at his Antwerp home.

In the century from Memling to Rubens only a few Flemish masters like Antonis Moro and Pourbus escaped the palsyng renaissance limitations and developed other styles of painting, such as



WELL OF QUENTIN MATSYS, ANTWERP

portraits, still life, genre—*du genre bas*, of the lower orders or every-day people as opposed to the picturing of gods and goddesses, saints and aristocrats.

Rubens himself was epoch-making. He was Flemish to the core, and adhered to Flemish ideals, but transfused them by Italian concepts learned from Veronese and Giulio Romano. It was a grandiose

age—an age of great conquests, unheard-of treasure, regal apparel; and Rubens lived at the splendid courts of Mantua, Spain, France and England, diplomat by grace, artist by bent and



SPIRE OF THE CATHEDRAL, ANTWERP

passion. His robust vitality stirred even in saints and madonnas. Large in spirit, the master was open to all gracious influences, and excelled in many lines. Antwerp's once tumultuous life pulses through his work—worship and intercession, altar-pieces painted for rich guilds, offerings made in expiation by repentant sinners, classic pageants executed at command for crowned kings and queens.

Rubens' own home and his father's house in Antwerp, with their imposing façades, are reminiscent of this prince of art. Not far away in a rococo church, St. Jacques, splendid with black and white marble, the painter lies buried in his family chapel, under an altar-piece

of his own. And passing through the forest of pillars made by the six spacious aisles of the Gothic cathedral, or walking down the grand nave, we come to the lofty transepts, each wall bearing one of Rubens' two world famous paintings, the Raising of the Cross and the Descent, where at the feet of Christ the Dolorous Mother is supported by St. John. Over the high altar in the distant sweep of the choir is the same artist's rapt, transfigured Mary of the Assumption. And in the Museum Rubens shows us another ideal of womanhood in the high-life, domestic scene of the Education of the Virgin, who is an exquisite Flemish girl of flesh and blood.

After Rubens—some think above him—is Van Dyck, his pupil, refined, poetic, with rare insight into character and fervid religious feeling. Antwerp marked the three hundredth anniversary of the birth of her great son by a loan collection of his works gathered from every choice gallery in Europe. Two of his masterpieces adorn the Museum, his touching Pietà where the Dolorosa holds her dead Son whose wounds St. John points out to pitying angels, and the wonderful Crucifixion, overpowering in its tragic realism, with the sun and moon darkened.

Flemish art unfolds in this Museum from its earliest development to modern times. Here we see the beautiful Seven Sacraments ascribed both to Robert Campin of Tournai and his pupil Roger van der Weyden, whose Annunciation is singularly pure and reverent. The unfinished St. Barbara of Van Eyck, the great triptych of the Entombment by Quentin Matsys foreshadowed Rubens and his school, who were followed by Jordaens in vigorous family groups like the charming "As Sing the Old, so Pipe the Young." The best work of the two Coxcijs, and the four de Voses hold their own with the Dutch wizards, Holbein, Gerard Dou, Franz Hals, Rembrandt, Teniers, Jan Steen. Among the clever and prolific moderns, Gallait is classic, with flashes



DESCENT FROM THE CROSS, IN THE CATHEDRAL OF ST. JACQUES, ANTWERP  
By Rubens.



ENTOMBMENT, ANTWERP

Center of triptych.

By Quentin Matsys.

of genuine feeling, as in the small canvas at Brussels where Alva looks down on his dead victims, Egmont and Hoorne. Biefve is historical, Boulanger pastoral, Alfred Stevens of late years impressionistic, and Baron Leys, archaic and distinctly leader, revives the spirit of Van Eyck and Memling.

The works of the masters of the sixteenth century onward were engraved and printed by one noted firm through seven generations, beginning with the learned Plantin of Tours who founded a printing shop in Antwerp in 1555. He bequeathed the business to his son-in-law, Moretus, himself an artist in his line, and friend of Rubens and Van Dyck who painted many portraits of the Plantin-Moretus family and their famous editor, Justus Lipsius.

A stately dwelling gradually grew up around the primitive shop. Though much was added, nothing was destroyed or changed. The early press is there, the ancient type, copper plates, priceless first proofs, original drawings, splendid books printed by the firm, portraits, cabinets, decorated ceilings, fine chimneys, rare old domestic furniture and porcelains. This historic house and its interesting contents were acquired by the city in 1875, and form the most unique and complete industrial museum in the world.

Art languished during the century of Spanish misgovernment of the Belgian provinces following on the death of Clara Isabella and that of Albert in 1621. Spain being at war with France, England and Austria, her battles were fought out

on the soil of these, her most central possessions; and Belgium became "the cockpit of Europe," traversed first by one army and then by another—by Louis XIV, Prince Eugene, Turenne, William III, Marlborough. At the close of the War of the Spanish Succession, the Peace of Rastadt in 1714 awarded the Spanish Netherlands to Austria, fixing upon the unhappy country another century of alien rule.

The Austrian royal Stadtholders usually governed without conflict, and the reign of Joseph II and Maria Teresa left lasting impress, for their architect, Guimard, remodeled Brussels, laid out its splendid boulevards on the line of the fourteenth century walls, and made it the best arranged city in Europe. The Austrian power was overthrown by the forces of the French Republic in 1794, whose first act was to destroy the obstructive Dutch forts at the mouth of the Schelde, and reopen the port of Antwerp.

Napoleon boldly claimed the Low Countries as the alluvial deposit of French rivers, and proceeded to develop their trade to replace France's lost commerce with England. He built docks and arsenals at Antwerp and constructed fleets with which to attack the Allies; and to this magician Antwerp owes her present mari-

in a land of which he had been the real benefactor. Hence perhaps the faint support and final failure of the raw Belgian recruits at Waterloo. The British and Brunswickers withstood Jerome Bonaparte at Hougomont, and the Ger-



THE GROUND FLOOR, MUSÉE PLANTIN, ANTWERP



ENGRAVING EXHIBIT, MUSÉE PLANTIN, ANTWERP

time power. On his fall and retirement to Elba, the Allies handed over the Belgian provinces to Holland; and Napoleon, returning, found his enemies drawn up on Belgian territory and met his overthrow

mans and Dutch defended La Haye Sainte and Papillotte, but it is the Lion of Flanders that now overawes the field of Waterloo.

That forced union of Belgium with Holland in 1814 was doomed to end because it involved ethnic and religious conflicts. The one nation was half French and almost wholly Catholic, the other Teutonic and rigidly Protestant; and bitter memories divided them.

The revolt of Belgium against the Dutch in 1830 was quick, fierce, decisive. A national congress was called at once; a constitution modeled on Great Britain's was adopted by the victors; and in 1831 Leopold of Saxe-Coburg was elected King of the Belgians. He reorganized





FAMILY OF THE ARTIST, BRUSSELS  
By Cornelius de Vos.

the army, reopened the universities, founded national banks and schools, decreased taxes, improved trade, and in 1853 secured the free navigation of the Shelde.

New Belgium, autonomous at last, is strategically so strong that it is pledged to neutrality, and its fine army is kept ready for defence only, not attack. The kingdom has no navy other than vessels of the merchant marine.

Youngest important national unit in Europe except United Italy, this people had never before Cæsar's time stood alone. We must recast our conceptions, therefore, dissociate the six million inhabitants from all previous political entanglements, and judge twentieth century Belgium by its achievements in the seventy-three years that it has been self-governing. Nobly does the country meet this test, whether in politics, education,

art, enterprise or industry. Its suffrage is broad—one vote for every man twenty-five years of age, with the possibility of two supplementary votes for married men and holders of property and of college degrees. Its academic and technical schools have multiplied and improved; its art sustains past traditions; and its manufactures, trade and colonization are almost without parallel in their development.

To understand the national life we must remember that Belgium is the most densely populated region in Europe. East Flanders has about 800 people to the square mile. In the enterprising Walloon district one village succeeds another so closely that the paved highway flanked by small houses forms an almost continuous city street, and rural lanes are rare. Like the Japanese, the inhabitants are land-poor, land-starved, and being without a nearby outlet for the surplusage of human beings, they are land locked. Every spot of earth susceptible of tillage is made to yield its utmost for home consumption as well as export. London is partly fed on Belgian products. Busy as the kingdom is, work is not plentiful enough for all, and keen competition lowers wages and makes the life of large numbers of the peasantry a tragedy of want and suffering. This

wholesale. In Bruges, twenty years ago, one-third of the inhabitants were paupers. But modern methods are conquering these conditions. Vagabondage has been made a crime. The government segregates beggars and tramps in vast agricultural communities and forces them to work.



HOUGOMONT, WATERLOO

Agencies now exist in every city for providing employment for both men and women, and radical measures are on foot to aid without injuring the worthy poor—workingmen's and old-age pensions, state savings banks, artisans' homes owned and let by the state, cheap suburban railway rates. A wage-earner may ride fifteen miles and back, six days in the week, for thirty cents.

Paternalism, however, does not stem the socialistic tide, but rather increases its force, as many thoughtful people believe. The workingman's party is very strong and demands radical concessions, state ownership of lands, tools, mines, water-power, gratuitous administration of justice, support by the state of all children attending the public schools, universal adult suffrage for women as well as men. Already does the government own all the railways in the kingdom except one, the telegraphs and many telephone lines, canals and waterways.

The standing army is a thorn in the workingman's side, with its compulsory military service and attendant conscription acts. Conscription takes from productive pursuits many of the fittest men at the most critical period of a gainful



LA HAYE SAINTE, WATERLOO

poverty becomes acute whenever political or social changes occur or bad harvests intervene. The state grants relief, and churches and monastic orders help the needy to such extent as almost to pauperize whole districts, creating beggars



PALAIS DE JUSTICE, BRUSSELS



PALACE OF THE KING, BRUSSELS



PALAIS DES BEAUX-ARTS, BRUSSELS



SQUARE DU SABLON, BRUSSELS

career. On the other hand the ignorant peasant during his term of enlistment becomes trained and competent, his superior physique being largely due to the excellent hygienic discipline of military life.



L'AVENUE LOUISE, BRUSSELS

His womenkind remain illiterate or would remain so except for compulsory schooling, and the withdrawal from industry of a certain proportion of sons and brothers relegates to mothers and sisters tasks beyond their strength and keeps the weaker sex in that position of social inferiority common in nearly all continental nations.

Women and dogs are Belgium's burden-bearers. No weights are thought too heavy for either. Both are faithful and uncomplaining. In the Walloon country the peasant women while young are blooming and handsome, but they age early, and age brings no exemption from toil. Street sweeping, railway signaling and such tasks fall to the old, while young women perform the hardest physical toil. They shovel sand and coal, carry brick, pile iron, load and unload freight cars, polish window glass, pack boxes, lift hay and fagots, and even draw canal boats along the tow-paths. In Flanders the peasant girls till the fields, tend cattle and gather crops. Calloused hands inured to duties like this can take no part in lace-making, for only finger tips extremely sensitive can manage the delicate threads, and even housework unfits a woman to use the bobbins—one reason why the lace-makers live poorly. Whole families of

workers follow certain trades in the household, as glove making, underwear, polishing and assembling firearms. The factory system is widely developed, and a hundred thousand girls operate machinery in cotton, linen and woolen mills, or work at electrical supplies, pottery and glass. The finest underwear sold in European shops is Belgian-made, and Brussels is a more advantageous shopping center than Paris.

The state and many communes support trade-schools of the highest order for girls, whose diplomas mean skill and efficiency—ability to design a dress as well as make it, to decorate pottery which their own hands have formed. Drawing is learned in night and day classes, while laundering and cooking are thoroughly taught. Indeed, house-keeping schools are a special feature of Belgian education, particularly in the poorer districts, where effort is made to reduce intemperance by the use of proper food. Belgium is said to spend thirty million dollars a year for liquors, but the wider consumption of malt and the government program of shorter working hours have lessened the drinking habit.

Belgium's enterprises are not domestic only; her "promoters" push into remotest



MILK SELLER, BELGIUM

corners of the globe. About seventy million dollars of Belgian capital is invested in Russian railways, iron-works and street-car systems, earning eight per cent. The profit on Moscow trams was very large on the amount invested. Belgium secured



GUILD HOUSES AND CORNER OF HOTEL DE VILLE, BRUSSELS

the right to build a line from Hankow to Peking in the face of English, German and American competition, and the material is all of home production. Important concessions in the Philippines have been secured; and Belgium sells on our Pacific coast coke and pig iron and many other exports. In Persia the ingenious Walloons are constructing railways, telephones, lighting plants, and manufactories for sugar and glass. Egypt is a field for successful exploitation under the very nose of John Bull. The Kingdom of Siam, its laws and industries were entirely reorganized in late years by Belgians, and Belgian jurists occupy its most important civic and legal positions.

Let us glance again at the fountain head whence flow brains and money and supplies for these gigantic schemes. Are the home towns lagging in the twentieth century procession? Are Belgian cities "dead" as the casual observer might say who does not know their language and can not appreciate their delightful and liberal civilization?

The North Sea coast is Belgium's holiday ground in summer, and visitors from abroad also flock to Heyst, Blankenberghe, Le Coq, Middel, and Mariakerke, Newport and Ostend. Ostend is the most fashionable, modern and expensive resort—modern, despite traces of its memorable siege from 1601 to 1604 when Maurice of Orange defended the town against Archduke Albert. Spaniards beleaguered it then, the ocean attacks it now; and the great dyke, a magnificent engineering work, repels sand and water and furnishes a fine promenade for Ostend's cosmopolitan patrons, Turks, Japanese, Hindoos, Russians, French, Germans, Austrians, English and Americans, who come to enjoy bathing, music, parks, drives, and gambling in the Kursaal. Leopold II has a villa here, where in the town's simpler days the monarch came; and perhaps his presence gave the brilliant watering place the success it has now attained. On its industrial side, the fisheries maintain their rank, even encroaching upon English trade, and the use of steam-

trawlers has vastly increased their value. The government supports a school of fisheries, where even the smallest lads make nets, seines, rope, tackle and parts of boats, and learn about ocean currents and wind, deep sea animal life and every other feature of the German Ocean that can aid fishermen to wrest a livelihood from old Neptune.

Bruges is about to open deep waterways, constructed at great cost; and once more its commerce will flourish. Many religious orders, driven out of France in the past five years, have made a new and congenial home in Belgium, whose language, religion and habits of life are like their own; and Bruges by its advantages has attracted so many of these monks and nuns that land is in demand, and great monasteries, convents, and chapels are going up, keeping bricklayers and carpenters busy. In a fine old private palace, connected with Notre Dame by a mid-air passage to the family chapel in the gallery of the church, the town has installed a museum of antiquities, and in 1902 a remarkable exhibition of old masters was held there. The rare display of Van Eycks, Holbeins and Memlings brought crowds of artists and sight-seers, and stately Bruges took on a holiday air.

Re-created Flanders is perhaps best observed in the large cotton and linen mills of Ghent. Its important metal trade carries on the traditions so beautifully illustrated in the museum of armor and wrought iron, hardly inferior to the noted collections at Vienna, Madrid and Nuremberg. Ghent has a State University, and a drawing-school with extensive classes for textile-workers held at night and Sundays. Some of its mills employ between three and four thousand operatives, clean, frugal, ambitious, inheriting precious aptitudes for handicrafts from remote ancestors who made up the many guilds that were the pride of Ghent. Societies of all kinds still flourish. University students have clubs for workingmen and lads;

the churches have "*patronages*" under the auspices of priests and sisters; the wage-earners have a large coöperative association, Vorhuit (progress), which publishes newspapers and literature, carries on a bakery and conducts stores for the benefit of 8,000 members, almost rivaling the Maison du Peuple at Brussels, with 14,000 subscribers.

Brussels retains more medieval treasures than Antwerp, and these are confined to the low-lying old town, for the whole lordly group of buildings which centered near what is now the Place Royale, around the castle of the Counts of Louvain on the Caudeberg hill, was burned in 1731. The beautiful guild houses on the Grand Place replace others destroyed at the end of the seventeenth century by Villeroi, marshal of Louis XIV. The valley is Flemish and commercial and contains the Bourse, the monument to the fighters of 1830, the Postes, the royal Théâtre de la Monnaie, and the University. Hosts of shops display filmy laces, jewels, gold and silver work, embroideries, faience, brass, marquetry, antiques and curios. The narrow but fashionable Rue de la Madeleine leads into the Montagne de la Cour, the principal shopping street of the capital. After the great fire the old palace of the Dukes of Brabant was replaced by the Ancienne Cour of the Austrian Stadtholders, which now houses the Royal Museum, Library and Modern Picture Gallery, a stone's throw from Godfrey de Buillon with his banner, who seems to cry "*Dieu le veut.*" Not far away is the Palais des Beaux-Arts, containing gems by the old masters. At the end of the Rue de la Régence rises the colossal classic pile of the Palais de Justice, while the vista of the Rue Royale ends in the gilded dome of the church of Ste. Marie de Schaerbeck.

The hill remains political and aristocratic, French in speech and manners. Here stands the king's palace and the park, part of the gardens of the Dukes of Brabant. Government buildings are grouped



near, the Palais de la Nation, the quarters for the cabinet ministers, and farther on rises the Doric column of Congress, commemorating national independence. Fronting on the magnificent boulevards are the Botanical Gardens, and the Academy; and the Avenue Louise with its double drives, bridle paths and promenades, leads to the great park, Bois de la Cambre. The king's chateau is at Laeken, where also stands the monument of the people to his father, Leopold I.

Believing in the educational value of scientific collections illustrative of different races of men, the government founded at Brussels the Congo Museum to make known to the mother-land her recent acquisitions in tropic Africa. This building is the "Dark Continent" in miniature. By clever representations of native huts and villages where the Congo people are shown engaged in their daily pursuits, the strange habits of living and tribal customs are dramatically told. All the birds and animals of the torrid zone are there in tree or jungle or marsh, and flowers and shrubs and specimens of every product, with carvings, beautiful woven stuffs, dresses, weapons, tools and instruments, and tusks of ivory ten feet in length. Cotton from the new plantations, rubber from lianas or climbing plants inexhaustible in number, ramie fiber and tobacco suggest present wealth and endless possibilities.

As Brussels embodies royalty and the political life of the twentieth century Bel-

gium, so do Mons, Charleroi and Liège typify its industrial conquests. The English "black country" is hardly blacker with vast coal deposits, furnaces, foundries, machine shops, and metal, glass and pottery works. Belgian thrift mixes coal with oil, makes fuel bricks, and uses them



PULPIT, CATHEDRAL OF ST. GUDULE, BRUSSELS

By Geefs.

for railway and stationary engines. Since fine kaolin exists in abundance, the "crystalleries" and plate glass factories attract skilled workers whom other countries try to obtain. But these Belgian adepts rarely emigrate. "No," they say, "you earn more abroad, but you spend more. Here we can have champagne if





LE THEATRE ROYAL, BRUSSELS

we want it for two francs a bottle"—champagne meaning good dinners, and black coffee and other home pleasures.

The miners of Mons and Charleroi have many aids to thrift and decent living, and here especially has the government focussed its trade schools, drawing and housekeeping schools, with a view to uplifting the population and counteracting the effects of underground toil. For alcoholism is especially the weakness of the man who rarely sees the sun and has no home except a hovel, no wife that deserves the name, no hope of a better life, no aids to manhood and self-respect. Some of the coal companies provide excellent dwellings, recreation grounds, and clubs; and arbitration of disputes is very general.

Liège within a radius of forty or fifty miles is a hive of industry—coal, iron, brass, zinc, guns and machinery, steel works, furnaces, brick, bridges, rails. The Cockerill employs over 4,000 men and was the first company to adapt steam to European railways and vessels. Its shipyards turn out mail boats, its shops gigantic machinery, its converters the mer steel for domestic and foreign

railways. Moreover, nearly all these big establishments spend thousands of dollars annually for hospitals, technical schools, old-age pensions and homes for their employes. The Belgian manufacturer is rarely an absentee. He lives at the works, and gains a knowledge of conditions that no mere stockholder ever possesses.

Verviers is a new town delightfully situated and with large wool interests. It makes all the cloth for the Belgian army, fezzes for Turkey and Morocco, goods for Brazil and Argentina. The commune supports a textile school open at night and on Sundays, so that the ambitious Walloon workers may improve their methods by learning every secret of the wool trade—dyeing, pattern-making, weaving, mending and finishing. Namur produces cutlery and hardware. Soignies is in a district of blue stone quarries, and the trade classes there teach drawing, carving, cutting, polishing, elements of geometry and architecture.

In summer, every Belgian who is able to take a holiday flees to the country; and beyond Liège, Verviers and Namur lies an ideal out-of-door region, of which delightful Spa is the center and chief



LE PALAIS DE LA NATION, BRUSSELS

attraction. How many go to drink from Peter the Great's spring, how many to play games of chance with the hope of breaking the bank, how many to join in the fashionable round and follow the doings of royalty, who can say?

Leopold II is a legitimate object of interest because of his achievements, his democratic methods and his qualities as a ruler and statesman. Original, astute, broad-minded, the king is a modern of moderns. Daring enough to conceive vast plans of colonization as an outlet for his pent-up subjects and their skill and enterprise, he was practical enough to secure for Belgium a domain eighty times as large as itself.

The Congo is the child of this brilliant monarch's brain. His creation of the colony began with the Geographical Congress of 1876, of which he was president. It met in his own palace. There were planned the African explorations carried on by Cambrier, Stanley and others. In 1884, fourteen European nations, with Bismarck leading at Berlin, recognized the Association of the Congo as a sovereign power and in 1886 Leopold was pro-

claimed by the governor of the country as sovereign of the Congo.

The Congo state has a dual government, partly carried on in Brussels, partly local; and its bonds sell higher than those of several European countries. It has a judiciary, an army, schools and a monetary system, the motto on its coins being characteristic of the motherland, "Work and Progress." Without a railway this vast tract would be wholly useless. The railway was built, and not only its rails but all its sleepers and its one hundred bridges are of steel to defy destructive ants. By making exports possible the line has created values and has proved a marvelous success. Its ordinary shares in 1893 sold for 325, in 1898 for 1170. Its founders' shares went up from 275 to 1925. Rubber, which needs no cultivation, and ivory and coffee are marketed at Antwerp.

The possibilities of this rich domain are endless. King Leopold has willed his share in it, bought with his private fortune, to the Belgian nation. The Belgians are proud of a monarch great enough to found an African empire, yet so simple

and kindly in his ways that he loves to talk with the peasant children on the sands at Ostend.

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How does Antwerp show its present commercial importance? 2. How did the recent exposition reflect the spirit of earlier times?
3. What object of interest do we find as we approach the west front of the Cathedral?
4. Describe the prosperity of Antwerp in the time of Charles V.
5. Why and how did the Spaniards destroy the city?
6. How did it suffer at the hands of the Dutch?
7. What was the character of the age in which Rubens lived and what relation did he bear to it?
8. Where is the painter buried?
9. In what other church are some of his masterpieces?
10. What historical interest has the Plantin Museum?
11. What troubles harassed Belgium in the seventeenth century?
12. What did the country gain from Austrian rule?
13. What from the French intervention in 1794?
14. What did Napoleon do for Belgium?
15. What part did the country play at Waterloo?
16. Why was the union with Holland in 1814 unsuccessful?
17. What followed the revolt of Belgium in 1830?
18. What is the state of suffrage in Belgium?
19. How dense is the population of Belgium?
20. What is the natural result of this congestion?
21. How has the government tried to overcome these conditions?
22. What does socialism demand of the government?
23. What can be said for and against the standing army?
24. Describe the conditions surrounding the peasant women.
25. What are some of the important industries in which women are engaged?
26. How is Belgian enterprise shown in other parts of the world?
27. Describe the varied opportunities which Ostend offers.
28. How is Bruges showing evidences of new life?
29. How does Ghent illustrate the modern spirit in Flanders?
30. Describe the chief buildings of modern Brussels.
31. For what are Mons, Charleroi and Liège best known in this century?
32. What are both government and capitalists doing for the workingman?
33. Show how the trade schools of Verviers and Soignies effectively serve their own localities.
34. What fine qualities has Leopold II?
35. How is the Congo State governed?
36. How does Belgium profit by it?
37. Describe the Congo Museum.

#### SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Where is Nijni Novgorod?
2. Who were Veronese and Guilio Romano?
3. What and when was the recent Van Dyck celebration?
4. Who were the Rochdale Pioneers?
5. What is the Maison du Peuple?

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the valuable series of guide books by this author. It is a guide chiefly to the works of art in Ghent and Bruges, Brussels and Antwerp, but it contains also introductory chapters relating to the general development of these cities. "The Life of the Bee," by Maurice Maeterlinck, (Dodd, Mead & Co.) also "Treasures of the Humble" and "Wisdom and Destiny," by the same author. "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," by H. P. Judson (Scribner) shows the relation of Belgium to the great movements of the past century. "The Story of Belgium" with a chapter on the Congo Free State, by Carlyle Smith (London, 1900). "Rubens" ("Masters in Art" series). Each issue of this admirable series of monographs includes ten half-tones of the artist's works, a sketch of his life, descriptions of the pictures, comments by distinguished art critics and a bibliography. The price of each is twenty cents and they can be secured from the Chautauqua Office, Chautauqua, N. Y. Of Flemish artists the series includes Rubens, Van Dyck and the Van Eycks. The latter, as it belongs to the 1904 series, can be secured for fifteen cents. "Waterloo," by Erckmann-Chatrain (Heath & Co.). One of the famous series of historical novels from which "The States General" in the C. L. S. C. course for 1904-5 is taken. "Les Misérables," by Victor Hugo, gives a striking picture of Waterloo in 1815 and contrasts it with the Waterloo of today. "The Social Unrest," by John Graham Brooks. Chapter XI is devoted to a discussion of "Socialism at Work" in Belgium.

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## Handel and His Music\*

By Thomas Whitney Surette

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**I**N the last issue of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* a brief announcement was made in reference to the six articles on the Great German Composers, of which this is the first. It is here only necessary to remind the reader that the point of view which the author takes in regard to his subject is that from which music is looked at as a natural expression of the lives of men and the changing events of the world.

The music of the great composers is the object of our study, and we shall try to trace the connection between cause and effect; between manners and customs,

\*The illustrative music for this article is as follows:

Handel: "The Messiah," complete, paper covers, 75c; boards, \$1; cloth, \$1.60 postpaid. Pastoral Symphony, 20 cents. Chorus: "All we like sheep," 5 cents. Solo: "He shall feed His Flock," 20 cents.

The special prices made above are to C. L. S. C. members. Orders should be sent to Editor *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, Hyde Park, Chicago.

Some of the selections from "The Messiah" have been arranged for the Pianola, in the Educational Series of the Music Lovers' Library, and may be purchased or rented on application to *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

These rolls are specially annotated, to agree with Mr. Surette's articles—the themes, structural divisions, etc., of each piece being plainly stamped on each roll. The rolls are absolutely correct and authoritative.

ideas and aspirations, and the music which is their expression.

Certain typical compositions will be chosen in each article to illustrate the genius of the composer, and, as far as possible, these compositions will be those most available and most easily performed. The list of these pieces is given at the beginning of this article.

The seventeenth century found Germany thoroughly exhausted by the Thirty Years' War (1618-1648); the fifty years between 1650 and 1700 were comparatively barren of music, but the art being really in the stage of youthful vigor, first felt the rebound, and the year 1685 saw the birth of the two giants of that time, Bach and Handel.

There had been a great advance made in the development of music during the time of Palestrina, (1528-1594); the dominating style in sacred music was the polyphonic (many-voiced). An understanding of what is meant by polyphonic music may be obtained by comparing the two excerpts on page 145.

The first is from Bach's G minor fugue in four voices, No. 16 in the first volume of the "Well-tempered Clavi-

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This is the second of a series of nine articles on "German Master Musicians." The complete list in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Bach (September), by William Armstrong.

Handel (October), Haydn (November), Mozart (December), Beethoven (January), Schubert (February), Schumann (March), by Thomas Whitney Surette.

Wagner (April), Brahms (May), by William Armstrong.



GEORGE FREDERICK HANDEL

## CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

1685	Birth in Halle, Saxony.	1729	Partnership with Heidegger; operatic ventures.
1692	Pupil of Zachau, organist Cathedral in Halle.	1734	Embarked alone as operatic manager.
1695	Journey to Berlin from which he shortly returned to Halle.	1737	Bankrupt.
1705	First opera, "Almira," performed at Hamburg. This opera contained the now familiar song, "Lascia ch'io pianga."	1738	Statue to him erected at Vauxhall.
1706	Journey to Italy. Produced operas and sacred music always with success.	1740	Composed "Saul" and "Israel in Egypt."
1709	Returned to Germany and became capellmeister to the Elector of Hanover, afterwards George I of England.	1741	Journey to Ireland., Composed "Messiah," begun Aug. 22, finished Sept. 14.
1710	Visit to England.	1742	First performance of "Messiah" at Dublin.
1711	Opera "Rinaldo" produced.	*1743	"Messiah" in London.
1716	Returned to Hanover with the king and remained there until 1718.	1744-5	Financial misfortunes again.
1718	Returned to England. Chapel-master to the Duke of Chandos.	1746	"Occasional Oratorio," "Judas Maccabeus," etc. These were followed by "Joshua" and "Solomon," "Susanna," "Theodora," and "The Choice of Hercules."
1720	Director of Italian opera for the Royal Academy of Music.	1752	Last oratorio, "Jephtha." Became blind.
		1759	Attended performance of "Messiah" April 6. Died April 14.

\*The date 1749 in Grove's Dictionary is incorrect.

chord." In this quotation the fugue theme—\*cantus firmus—begins in the alto voice; the theme proper extends to the end of the second \*\*measure where the soprano takes the theme in another \*\*\*key. If the

bass finishes, the tenor enters (end of measure 6); this is a duplicate—an octave below—of the soprano part at measure 2.

Here, then, all the parts are melodious, and each retains its individuality throughout, and the whole resembles a kind of musical dialogue. This is called polyphony (many-voiced), or counterpoint. The latter term was originally used because the notes were pointed instead of oval-shaped, and were placed counter to (against) each other.

The second excerpt is from the last movement of Haydn's Pianoforte Sonata, No. 2.



FROM BACH'S G MINOR FUGUE



FROM HADYN'S PIANO SONATA NO. 2

first two measures of the alto part be played and then the first two of the soprano (alone) the correspondence will be plain. After the soprano has begun, the alto continues with the counter-subject which it will be observed is made from the second part of the theme proper (alto part in measure 2). In measure 4 both alto and soprano are continuing the counter-subject, that measure serving as an interlude before the third entrance of the theme in the bass at measure 5. Here the bass part is a duplicate of the original alto part, only an octave below. As the

Here there is a melody against a background of broken harmony, the simple dance-like tune being accompanied by a conventional and unmeaning series of notes in the left hand. The two styles have been well described as "horizontal" and "vertical"; counterpoint being a kind of system of horizontal lines, while free music, such as is found in all popular songs and in many classical compositions since Bach's time, is written in vertical chord-masses, only the melody having line. Another helpful comparison is that

\*Cantus Firmus: fixed voice.

\*\*The vertical lines, called bars divide the music in measures.

\*\*\*Key: Every scale starts from its key-note, and ascends in a regular prescribed succession. The soprano part here, save for the first note, is identical with the alto, except that it starts from a different key-note.

NOTE—No excuses are offered by the author for these explanatory remarks about the fugue, and for similar analyses of later compositions. Speaking from a long experience with the public at large, he does not hesitate to say that there will be nothing in these articles which will not be plain to a person of average intelligence who is animated by a desire to learn.

which likens melody to drawing and harmony to color. Harmony was, of course, incidentally made in counterpoint wherever two or more parts were sounding together, but it was only incidental.

In studying the music of Handel it is essential that we should realize under what conditions people lived at that time, and what the state of the art was then. Patriarchal Germany, as has been already stated, was deeply religious; the Reformation had awakened a new life in the people, and the essence of the Reformation spirit—a revolt against the barriers between the common people and their religion—had been of great service to music in that it substituted the chorale for the mass.

The mass had been pure formalism applied to music; the kind of formalism

which exists in the fugue (*i. e.*, strict counterpoint) but without the healthy, warm, human feeling which the fugue expresses. In the mass, rhythm was practically eliminated, and rhythm is the very life of music. There was no movement in the music of the mass; no well-defined and regularly recurring accents.

In the chorale, on the other hand, there was both rhythm and melody of a well-defined sort. The melodies of the chorales were such that they could be remembered; the mass was too impersonal—had no melody which people could remember to sing. So all Germany learned the chorales and they eventually became the foundation for the church cantata. The following chorale is from Bach's "St. Matthew Passion." It was composed by Hassler; Bach makes free use of it in his great work.



O Sacred Head, now wounded,  
With grief and shame bowed down,  
Now scornfully surrounded  
With thorns, Thine only crown.  
O Sacred Head, what glory,  
What bliss till now was Thine  
Yet, though despised and gory,  
I joy to call Thee mine.

#### CHORAL FROM BACH'S "ST. MATTHEW PASSION"

In Bach's time pauses were made at the end of each line of the chorales to enable the tardy singers in the congregation to catch up. During these pauses the organist would improvise, and this practice finally resulted in the great church cantatas where the chorale is interspersed with more elaborate music in the choir. In fact the chorale was the base of much

of the music of the day; chorale themes served as the subject of instrumental fugues, cantatas, motets, etc.

Life in the German states in the early eighteenth century was quiet and self-contained. The dress and the customs and habits of the people were formal. Men wore powdered wigs and short-clothes; the thoughts of the people were not

employed in a haphazard way as they are now; life was not full of distractions; parents brought up their children in strict obedience—nowadays the reverse process sometimes obtains—everything in life was well ordered, and, particularly, well concentrated. There were no telegraphs, telephones, and other modern distractions, so that all the formal characteristics in the music of the period were the natural expression of the life men lived. We shall see how the changes of the succeeding generations affected the art.

Handel, in his visit to Italy, came in touch with opera, and, seeing its popularity, and probably with an eye to worldly success, entered the lists to compete. Italian opera at that time was a very artificial thing. Dramatic truth was little cared for, and the plots were often absurd; but beyond this the domination of the singer was such that the *arias* had become merely a means of display for vocal agility and the orchestra merely a huge guitar for accompanying the singers. The most absurd violations of taste were permitted in these arias; pauses while the singer indulged in roulades, trills and other vocal gymnastics; long passages sung on one syllable, taking all the sense out of the word, making the whole effect inartistic and untrue.

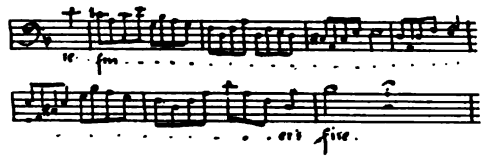
So that, while Bach remained a German, and wrote to satisfy his own ideals rather than those of the public, keeping clear of all outside influences, particularly those of Italian opera, Handel may be said to represent both sides of the question. He uses the fugue freely; he continually gives evidences of his strict German training and at the same time he adopts and even assimilates the Italian style, finally producing melodies which have all the best qualities of the Italian arias and an added beauty and sincerity of their own.

Space does not permit us to investigate the origin of the *oratorio*, but it must be

\*Aria: Italian for air.

\*\*See "Oratorio" in Grove's Dictionary.

noted here that in Italy in Handel's time there was little to distinguish it from the opera save its words. The current abuses in vocal style, embellishments, etc., were present in both opera and oratorio. Handel himself used his operatic pieces indiscriminately for opera and oratorio, transferring them when it suited his convenience. An example of the abuses vocalism inflicted on music may be observed in the aria "But who may abide," No. 6 in "The Messiah," at the words "the refiner's fire." This passage is as follows:



FROM "THE MESSIAH"

The general form of the oratorio, it should be noted, is nearer that of the opera than that of sacred music. It is really a dramatic form, rather than a religious one. A glance at the index of "The Messiah" will reveal its plan. Furthermore, its dramatic quality is amply justified, in most cases, by the text.

To bring before the student the contrast between an aria of Bach's and one of Handel's, it is suggested that either one of Bach's arias recommended in the introductory article in the September CHAUTAUQUAN be compared with Handel's "Messiah" aria, "He shall feed His flock," on the list for this month. In the first two measures of "What tho' trials" the lowest part is a counterpoint to the highest voice, and although there is a well-defined rhythm, and some variety the air is entirely unlike the kind of melody we call *tune*. It has a stiff formality about it. The composer treats his text with profound devotion, and never allows the music to deviate from the strict path.

In the fourth measure there occur two short notes (the two bars across the top



of the stems indicate that they are each one-half as long as those notes having but one bar). This little phrase, or motif, is a familiar one in Bach's music, and is a part of that forgotten phraseology referred to in the introductory article on Bach in the last number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. (See also second measure of excerpt from Bach's G minor Fugue, p. 145.)

The student must remember that human nature is much the same the world over; that at all times men have loved and suffered, have had aspirations and desires; and when we examine a work of art we must always remember this and not be deceived by its exterior to the extent of missing its real meaning. Bach's arias are deeply religious, full of profound feeling; the musical language employed, however, is archaic—a new tongue to one who has not studied Bach—therefore any real appreciation of them must pierce beneath this; must not be misled by their formal exterior. One must also, by many repetitions, learn to see the beauty and significance of his accompaniments, which, instead of merely supporting the voice with chords, have their own comment to make.

Handel's aria, "He shall feed," on the contrary, is a beautiful melody so modern as to seem to belong to another day and generation. Its flowing measures belong in the world rather than in the German church. The accompaniment is modern—simple chords mostly \*consonant, while the melody is untouched by the old spirit. There are also greater varieties of rhythm. The strains have a pastoral character, and are appropriate, but the significance of certain words is hampered by the demand for formality in the tune—as at "shepherd" in the first line, or at "with" in "with His arm."

It will be noted that the first part of this aria is given to a contralto (alto) voice, the second part to a soprano. It is

\*A consonant chord is one which expresses rest and is complete in itself, while a dissonant chord expresses motion or unrest. Speaking generally, consonant chords are quiet or peaceful, while dissonant chords are lively in emotional music.

unlikely that this was originally intended. Fuller-Maitland, in "The Oxford History of Music," Vol. IV, page 90, writes as follows:

A whole host of evil traditions has been allowed to remain in ordinary usage, as a natural consequence of the pecuniary advantages offered by the familiarity of the work and the consequent rarity of anything like a general rehearsal of it. One of the earliest of these traditions, which seem to have arisen soon after Handel's death, is that of allowing the two stanzas of "He shall feed His flock" to be sung, the first by a contralto, the second by a soprano.

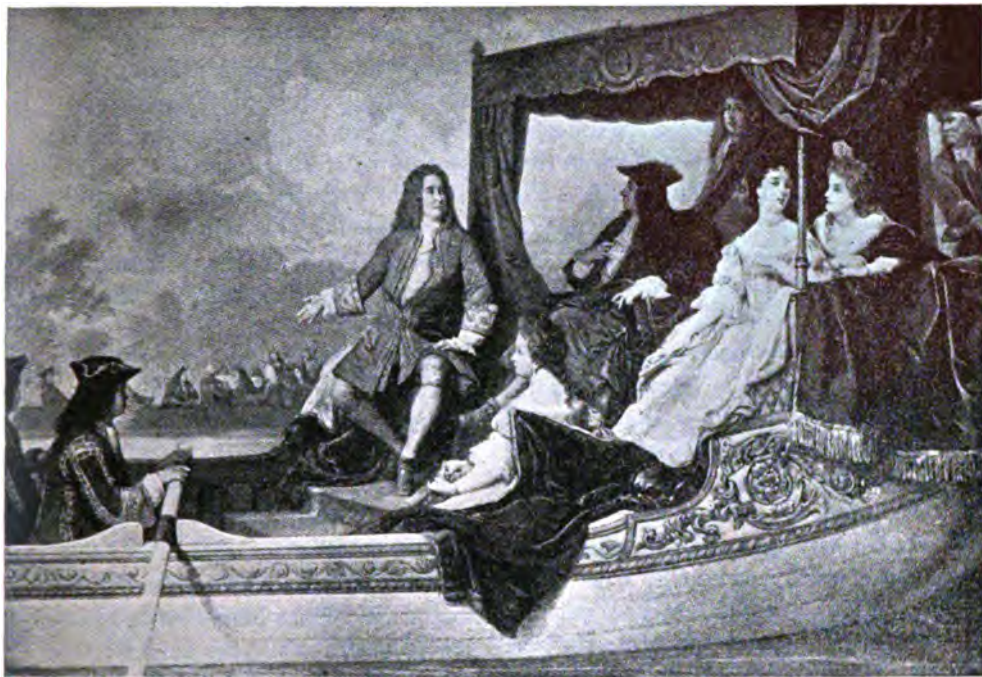
In the matter of realism—i. e., the expression by music of the actual, outer sense of a word, or the actual, outer appearance of a thing—Handel followed the old custom. In the chorus "And the land brought forth frogs" from "Israel in Egypt" a passage in the introduction will serve to illustrate this. A few measures are here given.



FROM "ISRAEL IN EGYPT"

It will be observed that the imitation of the actual jumping of the frogs is attempted. In "Belshazzar" Handel signals the arrival of the magician with an "Allegro Postillions!" We shall see how this style of realistic music was continued by Haydn and finally by Beethoven. The reader is asked to make an examination of this aria, "He shall feed," with a view to understanding its structure. After the introduction, the contralto begins the melody which is five measures long; this, after one measure interlude, is exactly repeated. One more interlude measure leads to the second strain ("and carry them") which is seven measures long. (The soprano part of the aria serves as a question at the end of this article.)

The familiar chorus, "All we like sheep," (No. 26 in the vocal score) is



HANDEL AND GEORGE I OF ENGLAND

a good example of Handel's style. Let us look at some of its details before considering it as a whole. A glance at its pages reveals, first, massed chords in the opening measures; at the word "astray" we have a realistic effect, the sopranos and tenors *straying* apart; a little later the altos and basses stray also; at "we have turned" a further bit of realism enters. Here the actual and outward meaning of the words is reproduced in the music, which is made of *turns*.

After this animated movement has ceased, there begins (at *adagio*) the solemn, chorale-like passage, "And the Lord hath laid on him," with which the number closes. These details are all characteristic of Handel, and the general treatment is equally so. The chief method employed is that of free counterpoint, or imitation. Free counterpoint, as distinguished from strict, relies on imitation which is not necessarily exact in its phraseology or its method of entrance. With the exception of the phrase "All we like sheep," which recurs throughout the

piece, almost the entire composition as far as the chorale passage is free counterpoint or imitation. The imitation is often exact—as between the sopranos and altos at the first entrance of "We have turned"; but the various parts do not enter according to the form of the fugue, where, it must be remembered, there is a regular arrangement of keys, the parts imitating each other in related positions.

The orchestral part of this chorus is also largely imitative, sometimes reproducing the voice parts, as at the first entrance of "turned"; sometimes acting independently of them, as at seventeen measures before the *adagio*. It should also be noted that the last three chords before the *adagio*—"His own way"—are made twice as long as the similar chords two measures before, thus giving to the end a sense of finality which is natural at the close of any work. We shall use here the word *\*coda*, to distinguish these final chords, but

*\*Coda*: (Italian) meaning tail. Used in music to describe those final measures which are added to give an effect of finality. The "amen" of a hymn tune is a *coda*.

more as a preparation for the study of the extended codas of Haydn, Mozart and Beethoven.

It will be observed that even in the adagio imitation is employed, the opening phrase in the bass being taken up in turn by the sopranos, tenors and altos. The three final measures are lengthened to give an effect as of a coda.

Handel's habit of borrowing themes from other composers is commented on at length in all the books referred to in the bibliography. It is interesting, here, to note that this chorus is based on one of his Chamber duets; this is only one of a long list of pieces in his oratorios which are taken from his other works.

It should also be noted, in relation to this chorus, (and it is equally true of the great mass of Handel's sacred music), that his style—somewhat oratorical, at times stilted and conventional, but always strong, vigorous and unquestioning—is very characteristic of the time he lived in. There is an authoritative tone to his treatment of the Bible words which is entirely in accordance with the general belief of that time in the authoritative character of the Bible. His music is totally without metaphysical speculation; it speaks of faith rather than of doubts and its hold upon the English-speaking public is largely due to this quality. His musical language is also direct and unclouded; its appeal is like that of a preacher who dominates his congregation by his vigor and the positiveness of his beliefs, leading them and swaying them at his will. There is something of the old prophet in Handel.

The theme of the Pastoral Symphony is based on a tune played at Naples about Christmas time by the *pifferari* (strolling players) on the *piffero* (fife). The rhythm in which this piece is written is that usually associated with pastoral music, and the strains here have a charming and unconscious grace admirably suited to the following passages of recitative: "There were shepherds abiding in the fields." The

style of this piece is free rather than contrapuntal. The melody in thirds throughout gives it a simple, ingenious quality. Structurally it is in three divisions, the first extending through measure 14, the second, in a related key, extends through measure 21, after which the first part is repeated. This structural plan embodies a principle we are later to see applied to symphonic music. The arrangement may be stated in the following formula: A—B—A. A represents the first part, fourteen measures long, B the second, after which A is repeated. There is no coda.

Students are urged to examine the recitative in "The Messiah," in addition to the three numbers discussed here. No. 14, referred to above, will serve as an illustration. Here long chords are held in the orchestra while the singer recites the words. The arrangement of recitative is here conventional, as is, indeed, necessary when the text is merely in narrative form. The sublime poignancy of some of the recitatives in the "St. Matthew Passion" has been already referred to in the introductory article in the September number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. The recitatives in "The Messiah" hardly reach the high level Bach attained to, being more conventional.

A parallel naturally suggests itself between operatic recitative and that employed in the oratorio. In some of the old operas the dialogue or narrative was spoken—Beethoven uses this form in "Fidelio." From the old *\*Recitative Secco* was finally developed the *\*\*Aria Parlante*, used so extensively by Wagner.

In regard to the plan of "The Messiah," Fuller-Maitland writes in "The Oxford History of Music," Vol. IV, pages 91-92, as follows:

It is impossible to imagine anything more sublime than the scheme of the work, with its gradual unfolding of the

*\*Recitative Secco*: Secco (It. dry), i. e., plain, simple, unadorned.

*\*\*Aria Parlante*: Spoken song; more melodious and metrical than the above.

plan redemption, from the prophecies, becoming more and more definite as the fact of the Nativity is approached, to the ineffable expressiveness of the so-called "Passion Music," the words of which are wholly taken from the Old Testament, and thence to the salvation of mankind through the efficacy of the great Sacrifice.

Handel's music seems as undimmed as ever. His claims to greatness rest on his oratorios which remain imperishable monuments to the supremacy of his genius. In regard to his contribution to the general development of music it should be stated here that it is almost entirely confined to the oratorio. His suites, concertos and occasional pieces are for the most part, in the style of his time, and do not give any premonitions of the great change which was to come to music through Haydn.

It should be noted that the development of instrumental music was retarded by the inadequacy of the instruments themselves and of the art of playing. The individuality of the different instruments of

the orchestra and their relation to each other was not understood as they are to-day. Some idea of the old instruments of piano family may be had through the accompanying illustration.

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What was Handel's greatest contribution to the oratorio? 2. What is the structural form of that part of the aria "He shall feed" which is sung by soprano? 3. How does it differ from the first part? 4. What characteristic mannerisms can you point out in "The Messiah"? 5. What are the chief characteristics, both as to style and structure, of the air "But who may abide", No. 6, in "The Messiah"? 6. What distinction do you make between the chorale cited in this article and the familiar tune (by Martyn) to "Jesus Lover of My Soul"?

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HARPSICHORD, BY HANS RUCKERS, THE YOUNGER



LA MAISON DU PEUPLE, BRUSSELS

# Civic Lessons From Europe

## La Maison du Peuple

By Mary Rankin Cranston

Librarian of the American Institute of Social Service.

**T**HE House of the People in Brussels is, as its name implies, a social center for the working classes. It is, however, far more than an institution for the convenience of recreative societies. Popular amusements, it is true, in the form of low-priced theaters, concerts and lectures are encouraged and most successfully conducted—but its value and usefulness for people of other countries lie deeper than its merely social side. The Maison du Peuple stands forth as a shining example of a successful business enterprise managed by workingmen on the coöperative plan, for their own benefit. Thus its activities are divided into two distinct classes, the social features and the business which it conducts.

The history of its conception and subsequent growth makes an interesting story, showing how Belgian workingmen, from a helpless, inert mass, developed, through their own efforts, into an association, strong enough economically and politically to become an important factor in business and to have a voice in affairs of state.

In 1830, Belgium was formed from a portion of the Netherlands into a separate kingdom. Although one of Europe's smallest principalities, it was its most densely populated country. As in all constitutional monarchies, limited suffrage prevailed. The middle and lower classes, the bulk of the population, had absolutely no political influence; only

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This is the second of a series of articles on "Civic Lessons from Europe." A partial list is as follows:

Street Decoration, by Milo Roy Maltbie (September).

La Maison du Peuple, a Belgian Coöperative

Business, by Mary Rankin Cranston (October).

Forestry in Germany, by Raphael G. Zon (November).

the upper classes had the right to vote. Labor interests were not likely to receive the attention they merited, nor did they.

About the year 1882, times were very hard in Brussels. Living was dear, the poor people were reduced to the last extremity. Almost anything would be a change for the better. Determined to make an effort to improve their lot, a mere handful of these men formed a company, subscribed enough money to buy four sacks of flour, rented a cellar and began to make their own bread. They sold to themselves at cost, to outsiders at the market price. As their modest venture prospered, others applied for membership in the association, which made it possible to extend and enlarge the bakery until the business was placed on a firm foundation. Growing economic independence created a desire for political prestige, since through this medium they could best advance their interests. And so it was that, with this small association as a nucleus, was formed in 1885 the *Parti Ouvrier Belge*, or, as it is known, the Socialist or Workingmen's Labor Party, powerful enough in 1893 to effect the radical change in the constitution which gave to the Belgians universal suffrage.

In 1891, nine years after the cellar bakery was started and after several changes to larger and better quarters, the labor party formed the organization which is today called the *Maison du Peuple*. At this time the business was much enlarged. Other departments were added to the original bakery, a dairy, butcher shop and pharmacy among them. Later on a dry-goods department and restaurant were added. In this way the coöperators could purchase from their own establishment everything necessary for comfortable living. It was but a logical sequence which caused them to make a rule requiring members to give all their patronage to the *Maison du Peuple*.

Until 1898 the association occupied a rented building. Desirous of owning its own house, a site on the Rue Joseph

Stevens was bought. The purchase of the ground greatly reduced its finances and a loan was necessary in order to erect a suitable building. They obtained this from the Belgian government with the privilege of repayment with interest in ninety-nine years. This is a most significant fact, showing as it does that an interest in the *Maison du Peuple* is considered a safe investment. From a cellar bakery making 528 loaves of bread a week out of four sacks of flour, the *Maison du Peuple* today makes 230,000 loaves a week, using 1,775 sacks of flour. From a handful of men who were its founders the membership has grown to 20,000 coöperators owning a business of about six million francs (\$1,200,000) a year. There are twenty-one departments with over 350 employees.

The affairs of the *Maison du Peuple* are administered by the Council of Administration elected by secret ballot of the general assembly composed of the members. The council is elected for two years, its members eligible for reëlection.

The council is divided into many committees, each having charge of a department. The Executive Committee is composed of one member from each section. Six members form a section, five elected by the general meeting and one by the employees of that branch. The bakery section is somewhat larger, having nine members, two of whom represent the employees.

From the profits semi-annual deductions are made of two and one-half per cent for the staff. Twenty-five per cent is paid into a reserve fund.

Each member pays five centimes (one cent) weekly into a provident fund from which in case of illness he is allowed seven loaves of bread weekly for two years.

The dispensary is one of the most valuable departments. A coöperator after six months membership who buys the bread for his household, not less than a loaf a day, and who purchases regularly

his supplies from certain of the other departments, receives the services of the physician and all medicines free of charge in case of illness or accident. The benefit extends even to members of his family from two to sixty years of age. They may have the physician's services and medicines upon payment of five centimes (one cent) a week for each person. Every man has a card of identification giving his name, profession, age, address and name of each member of his family. These cards are not transferable and are renewed in January of each year.

As the business enterprise increased their income and political influence shortened their hours of labor, the coöperators found themselves possessed of more money and time for recreation. It was natural enough for them to devise means for applying the coöperative principle in their social pleasures. In erecting their own building ample provision was made for special organizations as well as for business and political purposes.

The building is four stories high. The first floor is devoted entirely to buying and selling. The second story contains thirty-odd committee rooms. These are used almost every night in the week by the sixty labor unions which have their headquarters here. Each union has its own letter box in the corridor. Several of these belong to associations composed entirely of women, having for their object educational and political advancement.

Rooms furnished with the usual school equipment of desks, charts, maps, etc., enable coöperators to form night classes. Here workingmen may study arithmetic, electrical science, mechanics or any other subject which may be selected by a sufficient number of students to make the class worth while. A very good library of several hundred volumes, pamphlets and periodicals in French, German, Italian

and English, is a most efficient aid in this educational work.

A theater, with a seating capacity of 1,500, occupies one of the upper floors. Dramatic societies connected with the house give theatrical performances during the winter months. Musical clubs meet in a room set aside for their exclusive use.

Naturally the coöperators take great pride in the *Maison du Peuple* and are doing much to beautify the building. The main corridor on the second floor contains many works of art, some given by the artists who painted them, others by the friends of the association. For instance, one of the best pictures was presented by an American, a delegate to a German labor congress a few years ago.

Inspiring, suggestive mottoes are painted on the walls. One of them, "The working people are the rock upon which the church of the future shall be built," is a refutation of the oft-repeated assertion that the modern working class is irreligious.

And so the activities of the *Maison du Peuple* touch the workingman's life at all points. As the secretary of the Belgian Federation of Coöperative Societies stated at a meeting of the International Coöperative Alliance, "It may be said without exaggeration that there is not a form of human suffering which has not found an echo in the *Maison du Peuple*, not a popular hope in which we have not shared."

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# Maeterlinck, the Belgian Shakespeare

By Mary Mills Patrick, Ph. D.

A GERMAN wit tells the story of a young dramatist who brought a drama that he had written to a publisher. "Has it a *tendenz* in it," asked the publisher. "No," said the young man. "Then go away," said the publisher, "and put in a *tendenz*, and I will consider it."

The group of European dramatists so well known to the world at the present time, as each presenting a *tendenz*, or special direction of thought, all seek to offer some new teaching that bears a close relation to modern social problems. Björnson, Sudermann, Hauptmann and Maeterlinck, each represent certain tendencies of thought that are new and striking. The tendency of Maeterlinck, as shown in his dramas, is mysticism pure and simple.

As a writer, he is first of all a poet. His essays are poetry in prose, and his dramas have that repose of spirit, and want of plot and action, that could only characterize the writings of a man who lives in the dream world of poetry.

He is not only a poet, but a mystic poet, with the motive of presenting the unseen side of life. "Poetry," says Maeterlinck, "can have no other aim, than to keep the avenues open between the seen and the unseen world." His writings have also a strong pessimistic and fatalistic coloring, of which he is not himself unconscious, and which he regrets. In one of his early poems, he exclaims, "My soul, Oh truly my soul dwells too much in the shadow!"

Maurice Maeterlinck, the Belgian Shakespeare, as he is sometimes called, was born in Flanders in 1862, in the same year with Gerhart Hauptmann. The writer who had the most influence in the development of Maeterlinck, both on his manner of thought and form of expression, was Emerson, our own American mystic. Maeterlinck has also studied Swedenborg extensively, and among the

Greek writers he stands the nearest to the Neo-Platonists. "Plotinus," says Maeterlinck, "knew more of God than any other man." His earliest influences in literature were French and English. When little more than a youth he went to Paris to become a disciple of the great Villiers.

As a writer of poems and essays, Maeterlinck is individual and remarkable, but not unsurpassed. As a dramatist, however, he holds a unique place, and his presentation of poetry in dramatic form is unsurpassed in one respect, and that is in the method that he employs, a peculiar method that belongs to him alone. The mysticism of the drama is suggested rather than expressed, and he tries to adapt the mechanism of the stage to the subtle effects that he wishes to produce. To understand Maeterlinck, one must enter into the most shadowy regions of one's own imagination, and this result he seeks to bring about by a dimly lighted stage, moonlight effects, low tones, muffled drums in the distance, weird music on the organ, funeral marches by the orchestra, and the repetition of the same thought over and over again by the actors. That is, Maeterlinck seeks to produce the psychic effects that will assist the understanding to comprehend the unseen world.

I will sketch briefly one of Maeterlinck's shortest dramas, which seems to me in many ways representative of his earliest work. It is called "The Intruder." Whatever plot the play possesses is as follows:

The family of the lord of the castle is gathered together in sadness, for the mother of the household is lying ill in a room adjoining the stage, where she has given birth to a child that has never uttered a sound, and who they think was born dumb. Around the table in the living-room sit the different members of the



family circle, where they are gathered to wait for the verdict of the passing hours, to know the fate of the beloved mother. At the table are one or two vacant chairs, across which they anxiously look into each other's faces. It is night and dark without in the garden, and the stars shine through the glass door leading to the terrace. The windows are open, and the trees and shrubs of the garden lie beyond in the still starlight. The music of the orchestra is low and weird, and the actors speak in monotonous tones.

One of the company has the mysterious power of seeing beyond the visible. It is not the stately lord, nor the three daughters, but the gray-haired, blind, old grandfather, just entering his eightieth year.

The doctor has given a favorable verdict of the progress of the disease, but the blind grandfather sees farther, and believes not in the hope of his daughter's recovery. The others refer to the common things of every-day life to hide their deep feeling. "The door is out of order," and the "carpenter must come tomorrow to arrange it." The old man, however, speaks of one thing only, the approaching death of his beloved daughter.

The low weird music of the orchestra continues, the actors carry on their monotonous conversation, but the blind man constantly refers to the things that he sees with his sightless eyes, and feels with his quickened understanding. The uncle is ironical, and asks the old man if he thinks that he sees better than they who hope for the invalid's recovery, but he replies not, except to repeat the same words foretelling the coming disaster.

Several hours pass in suspense. A wind rises in the garden; the nightingales stop singing suddenly. The leaves of the trees rustle unexpectedly; the dogs hide as if in fear. Some one is wandering in the garden. The unknown comes nearer, and cold air enters the room, and the door refuses to be closed.

Who has entered? It is not the doctor, yet some one has entered,

for the maid-servant reports that the outer door of the house has been found open. The blind man sees a stranger sitting at table. There among the others the intruder occupies the vacant chair. The lamp suddenly goes out.

"Who is sitting at the table?" asks the old man.

"No one," is the reply.

"He is rising from his chair," says the blind man.

The clock strikes the midnight hour. Suddenly the dumb child gives a loud cry, the child that had never before uttered a sound. Then the door of the sick-room beyond opens, and the sister of charity appears from the chamber of illness, and crosses herself as the messenger of death.

This drama is almost entirely without action, and there is a continued sameness in the representation, which occupies about forty minutes.

One of Maeterlinck's best-known dramas is called "The Sightless." It represents twelve blind people lost in a forest, and unable to find the path to the asylum. In this drama, Maeterlinck does not use blindness, as is the case in so many others, as a symbol of real insight, but rather to show that we are all blind to the unseen world, and wander here and there unable to find the path we seek. In general, in his dramas, Maeterlinck represents the old and the blind, the weak and the shy, as the unconscious messengers from the unseen world. Sometimes it is the blind old grandfather, sometimes the child or the devoted dog, that are able to discern deep feeling of which all others are unconscious. In fact, it is never, according to Maeterlinck, the well and strong, but the blind, the foolish and the weak, who have the greatest insight.

Maeterlinck has published in all about twenty different works, many of which are short dramas.

One of the latest dramas is running at the present time in several cities of the world and is called "Monna Vanna." In

"Monna Vanna" Maeterlinck has yielded more to popular taste than in his other dramas, for "Monna Vanna" possesses a plot and elements of romance, and other characteristics calculated to appeal to popular audiences.

Should one visit Maeterlinck in his summer residence, a picturesque cottage in Gruchet-Saint-Simon, one would find him surrounded by the scenes of country life, and would perhaps, be received by the poet in his bicycle costume. In his study among his books one may often find a tame swarm of bees, for bees form one of Maeterlinck's hobbies. For twenty years he has loved to care for them, to handle them and to watch them, and therefore one is not surprised that one of his latest books is entitled "The Life of the Bee." It is not a scientific book, and yet there are many facts stated in it that might help the scientist. In reading this book, one seems to see through the glass sides of the hive, almost into the minds of the little laborers of the well disciplined kingdom of bees.

In Maeterlinck's earlier works one finds the artist, the poet, and the impressionist, with a new and original method in his dramatic art. In his later works he is more decidedly a teacher. The leading thought of all his writings is the unseen world, but in his earlier dramas it is the unseen world beyond human ken, while in his later works it is more and more the unseen world of the human soul, and of thought life as the source of individual action.

Victor Hugo once said nothing is more interesting than a wall behind which something unknown is taking place. The wall that hides the unseen world is present in all of Maeterlinck's writings, and the leading aim of his poetic art is to see through, or even over this wall. His works show a natural history of development in this respect, and it is evidently the attempt of the scholar to see over the wall that hides the "beyond," that has brought Maeterlinck to his present ethical

and philosophical standpoint, for he is now writing in decidedly ethical and philosophical lines. His ethical test of action is the inner one, and his fundamental philosophical principle is taken from Emerson, and is justice in the soul.

The charge has sometimes been made against Maeterlinck that he is immoral, but the cause of this charge is that he carries his judgment of human actions beyond the apparent morality that they outwardly present. Maeterlinck claims that outward morality can only be relative, because of the difficult conditions of our environment. "He who would be righteous," says Maeterlinck, "must all his life choose between two or three unequal degrees of unrighteousness." This thought is strong in "Monna Vanna." The heroine is placed in an impossible ethical situation, in which she must choose between conflicting obligations.

Maeterlinck's latest essays are philosophical, and are entitled, "The Mystery of Justice." Here he takes a middle place between two prominent tendencies of the present time, that of the aristocracy of the individual as taught by Nietzsche, that is, that all else must yield before the development of the individual; and the opposing teaching of Tolstoi, that individual development must sacrifice itself to the good of humanity. Maeterlinck would make justice, both to the individual and society, the deciding factor.

It is never safe to prophesy in regard to the future of a writer. If Maeterlinck has a future, it would seem to lie in the fuller development of his ethical and philosophical ideas rather than in his poetry. His original dramatic method, which is unsurpassed of its kind, palls after a little, and it is only those dramas that have a decided ethical motive that have met with success, if we count popularity as success. Maeterlinck is, however, a young man, perhaps still at the threshold of his strongest years; the result only can show what his real service to modern thought will be, both as a poet and as a teacher.

# Recent Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare

## Bacteriology: Contagious Diseases

By Professor H. W. Conn

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**I**N a sense the primary object of the care given to water, food and sewage is to prevent the distribution of contagious diseases through these agencies; for while other purposes may be more or less prominent, health is the one great factor upon which social welfare is dependent. If it had not been proved that water is a means of distributing disease there would have been little need of discarding the old system of wells or of giving up the river as a source of drinking water, nor would so many hundreds of millions of dollars have been spent upon expensive systems of water supply. We must bear in mind then, that while the guarding of the water and milk and the disposal of sewage may have an esthetic and even a moral value, the fundamental reason for so much labor and expense is public health. But while the topics already considered reach this end indirectly, there are other phases of modern bacteriological study that are more immediately connected with the problem of the distribution of contagious disease.

No discovery ever made has had more profound influence upon the health of mankind and the possibility of social advance than the knowledge of the fact that the causes of most, if not all, infectious diseases are living micro-organisms. This discovery has removed the devastating epidemics that effect social communities from the realm of mysterious providences and has shown them to be the results of controllable conditions. Epidemics

used to be fought by the beating of drums, religious processions and the burning of incense, but are now fought by removing the inciting conditions. As fast as these conditions are realized, so fast is man gaining a mastery over those contagious epidemics that have rendered life in crowded communities difficult or impossible. When we know that the cause of such a disease is a living germ, know how this germ is eliminated from the body of the patient, how it is carried to the healthy individual, how it enters the new body to redevelop the disease in a new field, and when we learn in addition simple methods of destroying these living germs, we are in a large degree prepared to guard our communities from the ravages of epidemics. These bits of useful information have been and are still being discovered by modern bacteriology and kindred sciences.

The recognition of the fact that micro-organisms are the inciting cause of any disease offers the ready suggestion that such a disease may be avoided by preventing the distribution of the germs or preventing their entering our bodies. This suggestion has furnished the foundation of modern sanitary science. Sanitary science is designed primarily for the city, since the problems it has hitherto attempted to solve have been chiefly those applicable to crowded conditions of life. It is hardly too much to say that sanitary science alone makes the modern city possible. We sometimes find its rules ex-

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This is the second of a series of articles on "Recent Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare." The first article, contributed by Professor H. W. Conn, treated of "Bacteriology: Food, Drink and Sewage."

acting and occasionally are exasperated at some of its seemingly needless strictures upon our freedom. But we forget the enormous death rate of cities of earlier generations. We should ever bear in mind that the achievements of our sanitary boards protect the modern city from the ravages which so frequently decimated medieval communities.

In attempting to turn to practical use the discoveries of modern bacteriology the sanitarian has been constantly asking three questions. When any particular disease is considered he asks: (1) Are the germs eliminated from the body of the patient and if so how? When this is known we know *where* to fight the disease. The answer to this question tells us to guard the sputum of the consumptive patient, the excreta of the typhoid, the skin eruptions of the scarlet fever and smallpox patient, and the coughing breath of the person suffering from diphtheria or whooping cough, since we know that these various excretions furnish the means by which the infectious germs leave the body. (2) How are the germs carried from person to person? Since bacteria do not travel far independently, they depend upon secondary means of transportation, and a knowledge of this fact will enable us to check their distribution. Accumulating information on this line has taught us to guard against water in the case of typhoid and Asiatic cholera, against milk for tuberculosis, typhoid, scarlet fever and diphtheria, against air of the sick-room in cases of consumption, diphtheria, scarlet fever and smallpox, against mosquitoes for protection against malaria and yellow fever, etc. (3) How do the germs subsequently enter the body of the new individual? Here again does information give us practical vantage ground for we learn how to guard *ourselves*. We learn that for typhoid fever we need to guard only that which goes into the mouth, perhaps as food or drink; for tuberculosis we need especially to keep the air we

breathe free from dried or vaporized sputum; for diphtheria, too, the inhaled air is the source of danger; for malaria it is the bite of the mosquito that must be avoided. For all forms of blood poisoning, including festers, boils, abscesses, inflamed wounds, etc., the means of entrance is through the skin, and this teaches us that we must protect ourselves by guarding all skin wounds, etc. It is not possible here to go into the details of the various topics considered, but the sum of the whole matter is that the answer to these three questions has placed us upon a vantage ground from which we can more or less successfully combat most infectious diseases.

The results of this line of research are really marvelous. The greatest scourge of temperate climes is *consumption*. Who would have believed that the discovery in 1882 of a minute bacterium as its cause would have been the signal for such an attack upon this disease as to promise soon to destroy its reputation as the greatest human scourge. The death rate from this disease, already declining before that date from general sanitary improvement, has been steadily and even rapidly declining since then, until it is today less than half what it was a generation or so ago. The battle waged against it is today being pressed more vigorously than ever, and the time is close at hand when this dread disease will lose its unenviable preëminence. *Asiatic cholera* has for nearly a century been one of those terror inspiring diseases, time after time invading Europe and demanding its millions of victims. But the discovery of its distribution by drinking water has checked all this and made the raging epidemics of cholera a thing of the past.

Who can exaggerate the value of bacteriology to modern *surgery*. Surgery of today is, indeed, founded upon a knowledge of bacteria, and this knowledge enables modern surgeons safely to perform operations totally undreamed of a few

years ago. With his confidence in his results the modern surgeon is perhaps tempted to do too much and use the knife where unnecessary; but even admitting this, no one can estimate the number of lives saved, and better still, the amount of suffering prevented, by the simple knowledge of the fact that inflammation, wound fevers, blood poisoning and the like, are all caused by the entrance of micro-organisms into wounds. The surgeon of today when called upon to dress a wound proceeds first to treat it with antiseptics for the purpose of destroying the micro-organisms that would be likely to make trouble. If he is successful in this he knows that the wound will heal quickly without inflammation and without much pain. We have become so familiar with antiseptic and aseptic treatments of wounds that we accept them without question, little appreciating the changes since the earlier days when inflammation, and even blood poisoning, were looked upon as more or less certain results of all severe wounds and many slight ones.

But today such results are regarded as preventable. Any educated person commonly knows enough to wash a wound with clean water, and disinfectant salves and ointments are so common and well known that they are in almost universal use as a dressing even by those who fail entirely to understand their real meaning. The very novice of today can dress a wound better with the aid of such well-known antiseptic dressings than the most skilful physician could do a generation ago. Ask an up-to-date dentist to what an extent his methods have been modified by bacteriological discoveries, and he will tell you that nearly every type of operation on the teeth and mouth has been very decidedly modified in the last fifteen years. Even his method of handling his tools as they go from one patient's mouth to another is now prescribed to him by the bacteriologist.

*Malaria* probably outranks all other

human diseases in its number of victims. In the tropics it is the disease that takes the majority of human lives, and in temperate regions, while it does not commonly kill, it robs millions of health and activity. The discovery of the cause of this disease is twenty years old, but the discovery of its means of distribution is so recent and so well known as to hardly require mention. We can not possibly overrate the value of the information that this serious disease is distributed by mosquitoes *alone* and may be avoided by avoiding mosquito bites. Few discoveries have had such rapid and triumphant demonstration and few seem more fruitful in possibilities. A newspaper joke of a few years ago represented the proverbial Irishman putting mosquito netting at his windows to "keep out the microbes." The height of absurdity it seemed then, but today we know that this is actually the most efficient method of fighting malaria. In the very hotbeds of malaria infection in Italy it has already been demonstrated by a practical experiment that the inhabitants may be protected from this almost universal disease by simply placing screens at the windows and doors. The warfare that has been begun so vigorously against the mosquito will have a similar effect upon malaria as has already been seen in the warfare against tuberculosis.

Even more triumphant has mosquito netting proved to be in combatting that peculiarly American disease, *yellow fever*. At the outbreak of the Spanish-American War I was in Naples and an enthusiastic young American remarked to me that there would be one good result of the war. The United States would take possession of Cuba, would send experts to Havana, discover the cause of yellow fever, stamp it out and thus protect our southern ports from this perennial menace. I remember laughing at his optimism, but his prediction has been absolutely fulfilled. The occupation of Havana made it possible for the military rulers

to protect every yellow fever patient from mosquito bites by surrounding him with netting; this prevented the mosquitoes from sucking the infected blood and this in turn, protected the rest of the community from inoculation with the disease from a subsequent bite of the same mosquito. The result of this simple procedure was successful beyond belief. Yellow fever disappeared rapidly and for two years this city, never before free from this disease, has had a clean bill of health so far as concerns yellow fever. If the same precautions are maintained yellow fever is a thing of the past for Havana. This city is rendered habitable in a sense never before true and our own southern cities are protected from one of their most serious dangers. This marvelous achievement was accomplished inside of four years and is one of the most successful of all scientific attempts to check contagious diseases.

In a different way has *diphtheria*, that most dreaded of all children's diseases, been robbed of most of its terrors. The use of diphtheria antitoxin has become so nearly universal and its success so assured that we can hardly believe that its discovery must be classed with those of recent date. But it is only about ten years since we were startled with the alleged discovery of a cure for diphtheria. Scarcely do we remember today the bitter battle that was fought against its introduction. All this has been forgotten in the wonderful success attending its use, a success so great that those most familiar with it say that no cases of diphtheria need now be lost if properly treated in the early stages of the disease. One skilful practitioner recently remarked that he used to dread this disease more than all others, but that now he preferred a case of diphtheria to anything else, because he only needed to inoculate with antitoxin and he was *sure* of the results. As a means of protecting other members of a family from infection where a single case occurs, antitoxin is practically sure,

and when there is diphtheria in a family of children the modern physician does not hesitate to treat all the children with this wonderful material as a protection, and rarely without success.

In short, the development of modern bacteriology has placed us in position for more or less successfully fighting all of the infectious diseases that have been such obstacles to social progress. No two of them are to be fought in exactly the same way. Typhoid is to be met by disinfection of excreta and guarding the water and milk supply; diphtheria by the use of antitoxin; consumption by checking the habit of spitting, by disinfecting sputum and guarding ourselves against the patient's breath exhaled in coughing. Smallpox is still fought by isolation and vaccination, but there is little doubt that the recent discovery of its probable cause will soon give us even more efficient protection against it. All forms of blood poisoning are mitigated and innumerable cases avoided by antiseptic dressing of wounds. Hydrophobia is almost totally prevented by that last discovery of the wonderful Pasteur; for whereas in former times fatal cases occurred in perhaps sixty per cent of the cases of those bitten by rabid animals, under the treatment of a Pasteur institute the fatal cases have been reduced to less than one per cent. In all this achievement more has been accomplished by bacteriology in a single generation than has been achieved by centuries of earlier history.

The contributions of bacteriology to public welfare do not stop with these methods of preventing the distribution of disease. Besides giving us more and more efficient disinfectants and telling us where and when to use them, the bacteriologist of today is telling the practitioner how to detect the presence of certain diseases in their early stages, when they can be most successfully treated. With his microscope and culture ovens the expert today can in twelve hours determine definitely whether a suspicious sore

throat is diphtheria or some more mild infection, giving his verdict so quickly that the microscope and antitoxin together should be able to cure *all* cases of this disease. Malaria, too, the microscopist quickly discovers and guides the physician in its cure. Typhoid fever he readily detects. A drop of the patient's blood is mixed with a small quantity of the typhoid bacilli, which is always kept in culture in the laboratory, and the mixture placed under the microscope. If the patient is suffering from true typhoid the bacilli soon clump themselves together, while if the patient does not have this, but some other trouble, the bacilli continue swimming freely through the mixture without clumping. One drop of blood under the microscope, thus detects the disease in an early stage, guiding the physician in his treatment, and in many cases relieving the mind of patient and friends who may fear the approach of this serious disease when it is not present at all. All these advances have laid the foundation for a new profession, that of *pathological expert*. In our cities may now be found laboratories well equipped with microscopic and bacteriological apparatus, and directed by experts, where the busy practitioner may send material for examination and for the detection of disease. This profession is distinctly different from that of the physician, although it involves the necessity of medical knowledge. It is a new profession, but is becoming more and more useful and necessary as information accumulates. It must belong chiefly to the city, for here only can there be sufficient demand to support it. The pathological expert is another guard that has been placed over the health of cities.

The most recent contributions of bacteriology to the science of health are so recent as to be still in their infancy, and it is hardly possible even to imagine in what direction the discoveries may turn. What changes they will produce. What disease is caused by the

multiplication of micro-organisms within the body, and that these germs are capable of multiplying there, the question arises as to how recovery can ever take place. Once the germs have found their way into the body and begun to multiply, what is to prevent their continuing to develop until in all cases they produce death? Of course, it is clear that this does not always occur. In most cases the germ continues to multiply for a time and the patient becomes more and more ill; but later their development is checked and ceases entirely. Then they begin to disappear and with their disappearance from the body the patient recovers. After the recovery the patient is, for a time at least, protected from a second attack of the same kind of bacteria, or we say he is *immune* from the disease. What are the resisting forces that produce recovery by gaining a mastery over the bacteria? What is the explanation of immunity? It is the attempt to answer these questions that is occupying the attention of the leading bacteriologists today, leading already to startling results and promising greater ones for the future.

The subject is new and its conclusions are still too vague to warrant an attempt at a summary. In part these powers seem to be associated with certain of the blood corpuscles; in part they are associated with other body cells located no one knows just where. In part they are due to the production by the various cells of certain substances that combine with the poisons secreted by the bacteria and neutralize the action of these poisons. The whole matter appears to be wonderfully complex and marvelous beyond belief. As yet little is really known upon the matter, but practical results are already appearing. The experiments are showing how to produce immunity against disease, until there is hardly a single infectious disease affecting animals that has not been controlled to such an extent that animals can be rendered im-

mune against it. Naturally the application of these facts to man must be slower in coming, and thus far no very great results have been reached for mankind except the discovery of diphtheria antitoxin. This antitoxin does not stand alone, however, since certain other diseases are attacked in the same way with at least partial success.

But there is one phase of this matter which is so eminently practical that it may well hold our attention for a while. Whatever these resisting forces are they must certainly be fundamentally based upon the activity of the body cells. If these activities are vigorous, the resisting powers are well developed; if they are weakened, the resistance diminishes. Vigorous activity of all body functions furnishes the best protection against attack, and the best surety of recovery if attacked by one of the infectious diseases. This conception has been in most recent years placing emphasis in a new direction in the combat against disease. In agriculture as much stress is placed upon the preparation of the soil as upon the planting of the seed. No matter how vigorous the seed, it will not flourish in soil poorly adapted to it. So, in the contest against disease, it is beginning to be realized that much can be done to check the growth of disease germs by keeping the body in a condition unfavorable to them; which, stated differently, is simply keeping the body cells in a state of high activity. It is not possible to make a vigorous race by simply destroying disease germs with antiseptics, or preventing their distribution, but the ravages of these foes may be greatly reduced by making a vigorous race. Precautions that prevent the distribution of germs increase the average length of life, largely by preserving from death those weak individuals that are incapable of resisting an attack of parasitic foes if they are once exposed. This is indeed a great achievement, but it will be a greater one to increase the length of life

by increasing the personal vigor of the race. It would be better to lower the death rate by enabling the individual to resist danger rather than by simply removing him from danger; better to produce a vigorous race than simply to lengthen the life of the weaklings.

This aspect of the struggle against disease has been coming to the front as modern investigation has been disclosing the wonderful powers of resistance capable of being developed in the body, and has been showing so clearly that when two individuals are equally exposed to infection the one may yield and the other resist. As a result greater earnestness is attending the search for this resisting principle, greater attention is being given to the conditions of life, greater endeavor is made to teach people how to live. Our public educators are giving more attention than ever before to the question of the production of sound bodies. Physiology and Hygiene have become parts of compulsory education. While, unfortunately, patent nostrums have been multiplying, so too have been the more sane and useful means of *preserving*, rather than *restoring*, health.

The problem of producing a vigorous race is not an easy one, and no one or two dramatic achievements can be mentioned that hold the imagination like those of the discovery of antitoxin and the mosquito origin of malaria. The conditions of life change slowly, but changing they certainly are. One of the advances made is in the increasing demand for furnishing people with *more air*. This has been partly due to the recognition of the fact that contagion is spread by air currents in poorly ventilated rooms, and partly to the appreciation of the fact that bodily vigor is dependent upon having a good supply of air. Such considerations have emphasized the demand for more air for our city inhabitants, more public parks, more fresh air excursions and larger apartments to live in. The tenement house



reform is only one great expression of this demand, a reform destined to have great influence upon social conditions.

A second phase of the problem is the demand for a *proper food* supply, already considered, and a wider distribution of knowledge as to the purposes and uses of different kinds of food. Through our schools and through the press the public is today being informed as to the comparative value of foods, their digestibility and their utility for the different functions of life, all of which is sure to introduce saner food habits and with them increased physical vigor. The necessity of *activity* to prevent sluggishness of the various vital functions is being more and more urged. Gymnasiums and athletic sports are aimed at keeping the muscles active, and these are increasing on every hand. Public baths, useful partly indeed for the purpose of cleanliness, but more for the exercise of the skin, is another direction in which are directed these endeavors to improve the public health. In short, as we look around us today we cannot fail to see a constantly increasing attention being given to the attempt to develop a sound body, all of which in large degree counteracts the physical evils that necessarily follow crowding of people together.

The battle against contagious disease has three great phases. The first is the endeavor to check the distribution of the inciting causes. This phase is consigned largely to sanitary boards and can in considerable degree be controlled by legislation. Its aim is to check the spread of disease. The second is the treatment of the patient in such a way as to assist him in driving away the disease germs after they have once found entrance into his body. This we put into the hand of the physician and the nurse, but it cannot be reached by law. Its aim is cure. The third is the strengthening of the assisting powers of the individual. This touched neither by the health

board, by legislation nor by the physician, but can be influenced only by the individual's habits of life. Its aim is to make a vigorous race. It is for the purpose of accomplishing this that so much attention is being today given to the wide distribution of information concerning all matters of practical hygiene. It is this last phase of the subject that contains the hopes for the future, and as fast as the bacteriologist can emphasize the significance of personal resistance and aid us to develop such resistance, so fast will he contribute to the development of social welfare.

It has been possible in this article only to outline the most important of the recent contributions of bacteriological science to social welfare. But incomplete as this outline is, it will serve to show why the high death rate of the city, as compared with the country, is becoming reduced. Most of the advantages outlined are applicable chiefly to large communities where many people are living in close contact with each other, and they are destined to reduce, sometimes to remove, the special dangers that have naturally been attendant in past years, upon such a crowding together of humanity. By means of these discoveries, city life is fast becoming as healthy as country life, and possibly in a few years may surpass it because of the increased care that can be given to public health in larger communities. The application of these discoveries is expensive, but social welfare is worth its price, and if our race wishes to live in cities it must pay for the privileges accruing from such a life. The possibilities of a successful city life in the future will depend upon the successful application of the knowledge accumulating today with such great rapidity as to the means of protecting our food and water, of disposing of our secretions, and of controlling the ravages made by infectious and contagious diseases. All of these problems must be solved through the aid of bacteriology.

# How the American Boy Is Educated

## Home Education

By Walter L. Hervey

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**M**OST people, in answer to the question, How were you educated? would think first and chiefly—perhaps entirely—of their schooling. And in a narrow and special sense they would be right in so doing; the school is the educational institution—the institution whose sole function is education. But there is a broader conception of the ways and means of education, according to which one may truly say, "How was I educated? I had a good mother;" or "I did not have much schooling, but I was turned loose in a library, and had my father as companion." Abraham Lincoln had precious little schooling, yet no man was ever more nicely "adjusted" to complex situations than he. "Broadly speaking," writes Professor Horne in his recent valuable book on the "Philosophy of Education," "the whole of life is an education, and life itself, in all its phases, is the great school. Every agency of civilization is an education. . . . Every human situation is an educational situ-

ation. . . . Living is itself learning. . . . Life itself the school, and the Spirit of the world himself the teacher."

Midway between these extremes—the school as the only educational institution, and all life as a school—lie two social institutions which, along with other functions, are consciously engaged in education. One of these is the Home, the other the Church. Each of these has something else to do besides educate, yet neither can do its proper work without educating. Each presents facts and problems pertinent to the present inquiry. This is particularly true of the home. Hence this chapter on what the proper educative work of the home is, and how the American home is today doing that work.

Originally, the home was the central and basic institution of society. The home was society. Before the school, the church, the state, or the specialized vocation had any being, the home was. Within modern times, and in fact under our very eyes, the home has been shorn

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This is the second of a series of nine articles on "How the American Boy Is Educated." In this series Mr. Hervey will undertake to give a picture of the various and contrasting conditions under which the American boy is being built into a man through education. Various kinds of schools—public and private, large and small, country and city, day and evening, liberal and technical, low and high, from the kindergarten up to the college and university—will be glanced at, and some contrasts noted as to material equipment, teaching forces, curricula, methods and results. Incidentally conditions in America will be compared with those abroad. The vital part played by home and church, playground and workbench, will be touched on. Some pressing problems, such as, How the raw, foreign-born material is to be wrought into the finished American product; How the American boy, whatever his condition (in mind, body or estate) is to be given a chance for himself through education; How the demands of utility and culture are to be harmonized; and How, through education, worship and religion can be strengthened to meet the strain that modern life puts upon them,—these and other problems will be considered, less by way of theorizing, than of enumerating and describing the forces actually at work, in the schools and elsewhere, toward a happy solution.

of much that made it what it was; its relative status with reference to other institutions has palpably shifted. Functions which once belonged to the home have now been given over to the school and the church. Responsibilities which were once seriously assumed by parents have been lightly rolled off upon others' shoulders. "We are not satisfied with the —— school," said a mother to me not long ago, "it has failed to train my boy to habits of promptness." But in that easy-going home, as I happened to know, meal time for the boy was whenever he ate, and bedtime was whenever he happened to go to bed.—The modern home is suffering from partition, and impoverishment, and irresponsibility.

For examples of impoverishment through partition we do not have to go back to prehistoric times; within our own memory the home was a place of varied and vital activities. The father and the boys plowed, sowed, reaped; raised horses and cattle and sheep; got out firewood and lumber from the forest; smoked, cured, and pickled; made soap, sugar, hominy; drew or carried grain to mill and brought back bran, shorts, middlings and flour; they made and mended simple tools, and built houses and barns. The mother and the daughters baked, cooked, made butter, cheese, jellies, preserves; spun and wove, sewed and knit; learned and practiced millinery and dressmaking. What a place for educating the boy or the girl was the old time farm! In every one of these activities there lay a summons to skill, a drawing forth of faculty, a demand for adjustment. In addition to these activities and such as these, there was the constant, daily companionship, and mutual co-working of parents with children. Life on the farm, in touch with the soil, furnished rare elements of education.

But within our memory these indispensable elements of education have come to be provided otherwise than by the home—or not at all. Hardly one of the

old activities remains, and, in multitudes of homes, no new ones have arisen to replace them. Work is increasingly "done out" or given over to hirelings, or to machines; companionship is increasingly crowded out; instruction and even training are incidentally given over to outsiders; the center of responsibility, in many cases, falls outside the base of the home. The father, who once was teacher, priest and patriarch, is now too often hardly even father. It is no wonder that the modern home, thus deprived of its ancient prerogatives, should be charged with having "abdicated." "Doubtless the American home," writes Professor Horne, and we must agree with him, "the very heart of society, out of which are the issues of life, is falling further short of its moral and religious opportunity than any other social institution."

It would, of course, be a mistake to suppose that just because home conditions are unfavorable to education, educational results must be unsatisfactory. There are compensations and substitutions. The American boy has the power of extracting an education out of the most unpromising conditions. It might seem, for example, that children whose parents are away at work all day, and whose home consists of two or three rooms, and whose only playground is the treeless street, might suffer from lack of home life and home training. But any one who has observed the infinite tenderness and care of the older brother of the slums toward his younger brothers and sisters, to whom he veritably stands *in loco parentis*, will understand that here is educative home life of no mean order, so far as it goes. Take, for another example, the children of the very rich, and in particular, of those migrant dwellers in hotels, who have been called the "bedouins of the boulevards." To the children of such parents it is an advantage that family life can be farmed out; that there exist such things as

boarding schools, and summer camps, and the all-day school that take charge of the boy from morning to night, supervising his play, his exercise, and his "home study," as well as his recitations.

Moreover, because home conditions are so different from what they used to be it does not follow that they are necessarily worse. Adjustments are possible. And, unless civilization is a roaring farce, it should be possible to produce a better type of home life, and a higher kind of education in the home of today, than in that of fifty years ago. Some of the ways in which this problem is being worked out in the American home of today, I shall now attempt to show.

There are two facts about the home that distinguish it, educationally, from every other social institution: the amount of time during which it exerts its educative influence, and the necessarily unprofessional character of those who constitute, so to speak, its educative corps.

In the first place, out of the first fifteen years of life, five are usually spent wholly at home, and out of the 8,760 hours which the children have to spend each year of the remainder, 7,760 are normally spent by them under the care and guidance of home; fewer than 1,000 hours being usually spent in school. In the second place, parents, as parents, are neither learned, nor professionally trained; generally speaking, if they are skilled in imparting instruction, they are self-taught, or "natural born" teachers. These facts help us to answer the question, What is the special responsibility or function of the home as an educational institution? It is clear that upon the home there rests a heavy and unshirkable responsibility for education. It is also clear that this education will have to do rather with laying foundations than with building superstructures, and with morality, taste, and religion rather than with intellectual training and knowledge; that the influence of home will for the most part be exerted through the activities and com-

panionships of home life, and through the "unnoticed pressure of a moral world" which the home brings to bear on the boy, and to which the boy responds, in great part, by unconscious imitation, by forming tastes and habits, and in some degree also by consciously trying and willing to "improve," to "remember" or to obey. More briefly, the home accomplishes its ends, educationally, not mainly by preaching, still less by setting lessons, but simply by giving old and young a chance to live and learn together.

From this analysis it follows that that type of home will have the greatest educative efficiency which provides a home life which is rich, and moral, and real. To be rich, home life must be full of activities and interests; to be moral, it must be organized; to be real, it must be vital, personal, and sincere,—it must be life, and not merely something wearing the look of life. In taking up each of these points in order, I shall be sometimes speaking of what is done, sometimes of what should be done; but I shall in no case go beyond what has been done, and what, indeed, must be done, if the American home is to do anything like its proper share in the work of education.

First, as to enrichment of home life through activity. It is evident that where there is nothing doing at home, there can be no education through activity. It is also true, since education is chiefly attained through activity, that where there is activity in which children can and do participate there is created an educational situation of high value. But how these situations can be provided in the city or town home is not so clear. The difficulty is analagous to that experienced in those communities where once flourished arts and crafts indigenous to the soil and locality, but where now even the hand of the oldest inhabitant has forgotten its old time cunning. The remedy in both cases would seem to be, Revive the lost occupations. Weaving, sewing, drawing, modeling, making things out

of cardboard, raffia, wood and iron, cooking and baking (for camp or kitchen), painting, gardening, are all appropriate and educative for boys. So are milking, churning, chopping, currying, rafting, logging, fishing, trapping, tramping, camping. The care of living creatures is an indispensable—yes, an indispensable element in a boy's education. One had rather, certainly, a boy grew up ignorant of many facts of geography, of many nameable rules in arithmetic, of not a few dates and battles in history, than that he grow to manhood without having experienced the loving devotion of a noble dog, or even the more chary attachment of a cat, and without having learned to treat them with loving kindness and intelligent care. Even white mice and Norway rats, guinea pigs, monkeys, and snakes are better than no pets at all.

Closely akin to these activities in point of efficiency for character building, are the planting and care of vegetables, flowers, bushes and trees. Gardening is a most, if not the most, ancient of occupations. It is also one of the most vital. It was once my privilege to observe city boys making and tending their first garden. Their eagerness over the preliminary operations was unbounded. And at last, one Saturday night, when the seeds were duly deposited in the earth, and there was nothing more, for the present, that human power could do, their pent-up feelings found vent in this prayer: "Dear Heavenly Father, won't you please make some of those beans come up by Monday." This very spring I watched the pathetic interest of a twelve-year-old city boy in some pitiful corn plants that bravely pushed their way through the soil of a cracker box window garden, only to perish because they had no depth of earth. The ever new and ever wonderful miracle of bursting seed and up-springing plumule is something which educators, whether at home or at school, can by no means get along with-

out. The fact that so many schools are providing opportunities for manual training, gardening, and even the care of animals, is all the more reason why the home should maintain its character as the place of fundamental experiences. "There must always be a first time for everything" (as an Irishman remarked when he milked a "first time" stream into my four-year-old son's mouth), and the home owes it to itself to keep within its own borders as many of these first times as it can.

Thus far in our consideration of the enrichment of the home, the town and city boy has seemed to be at a disadvantage which is only relieved by the corresponding enrichment of school life, and by the opportunities which are now increasingly enjoyed by all, of spending some part of the year in the country. In another phase of home enrichment, however, the advantage depends less upon the location than upon the atmosphere and the dominant interest of the home. Where parents have the reading habit (though much depends, naturally, on what is habitually read, whether the latest book or the best books); where poetry is read at table, and the talk of the table and the fireside is less about transient trivialities and more on that which is permanently worth while; where the right parts of the right kind of a daily or weekly paper are discussed and the rest suppressed by simply slurring over; where heroisms are praised, and ill-deeds (but only such as are suitable for the child's tender ears) are judiciously blamed; where the children's interests of school and playground are given due attention at fitting times; where the attempt is progressively made to place the children, as their interests and ideas widen, in proper relations with the various institutions of society—the school, the church, the vocation, the state; with teachers and pastors; with servants, employees, and neighbors; with the policeman, fireman, street cleaner; with

tradesmen; with hospitals, settlements, fresh air funds, and the various philanthropies which distinguish modern civilization,—where these things and such as these form the staples of home intercourse, there results a type of home education which nothing can replace. Where, on the other hand, instead of the wholesome and the elevating, there are found the vapid and the petty, there is also produced a bent which nothing can eradicate.

These influences work by percolating imitation rather than by planful instruction. Yet there is room for plan and room for instruction. Table talk sometimes approaches a school recitation; just as a good recitation often resembles familiar home intercourse. A visitor once passed a month at our house who was long remembered by the family for her unique and interesting table talk. She was a person of wide and systematic information, and her way of making this educatively available was to begin with that which was nearest at hand—the salt, pepper, vinegar, glass, pottery—anything that happened to be on the table. She would first draw from the boys all they knew, not an extended operation, generally, and then would describe in order processes of cultivation, manufacture and transportation, until she had run the thing down to its lair in the soil. Few of us doubtless could do that without coaching and cramming. But, when it comes to that, what right have we to be so ignorant about that which touches us every day; which the elements have produced, working together wonderfully; which men have wrought upon with skill, and which is so interesting! The difference, generally speaking, between adults and children is that with children ignorance begets curiosity; with adults, indifference. When the boy asks a question it sometimes means that he does so more because he wants to relieve himself of the question, than because he has any particular interest in the answer. Yet

there are times when the asking of a question betrays a fertile mind, hospitable to a wise answer. If, then, the answer is wise and educative, the parent will have had the privilege of attaining a result off-hand which the teacher might only attain with the aid of all his professional enginery and skill—as if big game should walk into your barnyard and of its own volition put its head into your stanchion.

From the enrichment of the home life to the organization of the home for moral training, the transition is easy; for, as we shall see, all home activities are closely interdependent, and morality furnishes one of the two or three master keys to the whole. Of all the matters that clamor for a hearing under this head, I can in this paper touch on but three—unity and order in place and time, responsibility, and simplicity.

Home is, *par excellence*, the unifying force in the life of a boy. At home his life centers. From home he goes to school, to church, to the playground; and home again he returns from all these. Home is his point of departure, his point of return, his headquarters. Here he keeps his possessions, toys, playthings, games, books, pictures, pets, collections. In even the humblest home, if it be wisely administered, a special place is set apart for each child where he may keep his things, and be at home. Even a dog likes to have his spot. This spot, for a child, may be only a corner; for a boy it should be a whole room. It is touching to see how a boy loves his own room, even though it be but a box of a place in a modern flat; how eager he is to keep it nice, how proud to bring to it his boy friends.

This principle that a local center is necessary to a boy's normal development is in some degree, greater or less, violated by those who flit from flat to flat, or from place to place; who keep continually on the wing; who go to a different resort each summer. One American boy I know of had got fast hold of a prime distinc-

tion when he asked, "Mother, are we going to live this summer, or only board?" Dissipation and distraction are also produced by too many social engagements, both at home and away from home; by the too violent excitement of theaters of a certain type, and of more than a very little of theaters of any type; by late hours, and by irregularities of whatever kind. All such ebullitions, shocks and unevennesses, if carried beyond a very moderate limit, tend to disturb the normal course of steady development, and, as it were, to pull character up by the roots.

How the homely virtues hang together is illustrated by the matter in hand. If the boy's life is centered at home and focussed in a room of his own, it is easier for him to be neat, to respect others' property rights, to be good tempered and self-controlled. In the train of these virtues naturally follow promptness in meeting engagements, regularity, studiousness and self-respect. The home is like a complex machine with parts nicely adjusted, one minute piece out of place vitiates the action of the whole; and if the whole is out of gear, the most nearly perfect part cannot do its work.

In every home worthy the name there must be, and there are regular tasks and duties which, being duly assigned, foster in the children the sense, and form the habit of, responsibility. The fixing of responsibility is the secret of educational no less than of governmental efficiency. Ease as well as efficiency is secured by organization. "Please go for the milk for me tonight" is of distinctly lower value than, "It will be your work to get the milk every night." Getting the milk becomes an institution, not an isolated personal request. It is most interesting to observe how the inner structure of the boy's moral nature builds itself in response to the outer structure of organized family life. The despairing cry of the flat dweller is heard: What can I "assign," how can I organize in flat life? To which answer must be made, You must organ-

ize, somehow. I know of a family of children, who, when bedtime comes, range themselves in line, one behind the other, and then each unbuttons the frock of the one in front. Where there was only one child a different system would have to be devised. Training in responsibility and judgment in the use of money is within the reach of every family, even the poorest. I have never seen children so poor as not to have spending money. To be given the responsibility for the spending, saving, and giving away of this money, in increasing amounts, according to the age of the boy and the circumstances of the family, is one of the most educative of experiences. It is not enough that a boy be given an allowance, nor is it enough that he be held responsible for spending his allowance, if it be spent entirely on himself. The three uses aforesaid, spending, giving and saving, must be differentiated, and the judgment gradually formed through wisely apportioning the total income among them. Just as character comes out in money matters, so is character formed by training in the use of money. Few boyhood experiences mean more for later life than the careful use of money, and the accurate and habitual keeping of accounts which is bound up therewith.

I have chosen to place simplicity in tastes and pleasures alongside of order and responsibility for the twofold reason that the home is the place where such standards are set; and in the home of today there exists, alongside of the spiritual impoverishment which we have noted, a certain material enrichment and complication that tends to put wholesome simplicity out of countenance. But the ability to extract pleasure from common things, from that which is near at hand, from that which costs but little money, is one of the marks of an educated human being, one who is so perfectly adjusted to his environment that he can enjoy it. It is a question largely of gradation and scale, this keeping pleasures wholesome

and simple. Where children who might be satisfied with dimes are given dollars to spend, there results a lack of perspective.

When I was a boy I knew a boy (it was during the panic of '73) who undertook to supply the entire family with Christmas presents for the sum of one dollar and sixty-five cents, the amount he had in bank. It was great fun to plan and weigh rival plans and nicely compute so as to keep the coat within the limits of the cloth. But on Christmas eve the father, hard up as he was, in a burst of Christmas good-will, added five (or ten) dollars—a large sum—to the appropriation. Immediately the fabric which had been so carefully put together fell like a house of cards. The things you could buy for that greater sum made the lesser things look like—what they literally were—thirty cents. It was as if a giant redwood had planted itself down in a grove of quaking aspens. The amount of pleasure was in inverse ratio to the amount of money. It is often so.

The elements of educative value in home life thus far noted have been for the most part such as might be found in a well-ordered asylum or boarding school. The essence of home life lies deeper than mere activities and interests, and deeper than responsibility and perspective. The heart and core of home life is mutual respect and reverence and love; and the basis of these is companionship and service. It is a great day in a boy's life when he wakes up to the fact that his father is working for him and making sacrifices for him; and I do not know anything that can take the place in a boy's experience of parental companionship. It is just at this point that the indictment against the American home bears most heavily: the cares of this world and the deceitfulness of riches are undeniably crowding out companionship, and hired service is to some extent replacing personal service. The remedy is simply expressed in the motto which Froebel

makes the cornerstone of his system: "Comm. let us live with our children."

To *live* with children means something more than to sleep and eat in the same house with them; to reprove and correct them when their conduct interferes with our ease and comfort; to provide them with playthings, books, schooling. "Is not the life more than meat and the body than raiment?" To live is an affair of spirit, rapport, response. To live with a child means to enter into his life, to be his comrade, friend, and confidant.

This fellowship is the condition of influence. A busy father of my acquaintance having awakened to the fact that his boy was growing away from him, and he from his boy, restored the old relation and strengthened it simply by keeping company with him. Such fellowship is also the very heart of authority. However it may have been with an elder generation, there is something in the American boy of nowadays that responds kindly to respect and friendship. The parent who looks up to his boy, is the parent his boy will look up to.

Granting that parental companionship, sufficient in quality and in quantity, is important, how is a busy parent, overwhelmed with business, with household cares and social duties, to find time for it? The answer is, naturally, By taking time for it. There is always time for what one takes time for—for that which is supremely worth while. The best parents of my acquaintance reserve a place on their engagement calendar for "the children"; for reading and story telling, for the bed-time talk; for the Saturday game, or the Sunday walk, or the occasional visit to shop or manufactories; for the school celebration, or concert, or play, and, once in a great while, for the visit to the class room; perhaps also for home lessons, particularly in the long vacation; and especially for some form of constructive activity in which parent and child can work and plan together. Such a program is arduous only if viewed ex-



ternally. Entered upon, it is both attractive and repaying.

The value of the parent as companion is visibly enhanced if the parent is hospitable to the boy's friends. I have known many parents to object to having neighbors' boys trailing through the house, making dirt and noise. But it is a pleasure to observe how both the neighbors' boys and your own boys appreciate the privilege of saying "O, come on in fellows. Mother likes to have you here." The boy introduces his friends to you. You note a peculiar something in him as he does it. You suggest that he invite his friend to dinner some time. He comes; and you wonder what has come over your boy. He seems a different boy sitting there, so mannerly and so manly. The simple fact is that he is a different boy, and you are a different parent. The simple situation in which you figure—you and the boy and his friend—is one of those "educative situations" of which we were speaking, half a dozen pages ago.

A similar widening of horizon and stretching of personality takes place whenever you go out with your boy to any show, function, performance, or on any outing, excursion, picnic, or walk. It would take place, doubtless, if you were not there—if someone else went with the boy, or if he went alone. But there is a time when, education-wise, it makes a keen difference whether you go with, or simply send.

A supreme test of the existence of right home relations is the willingness of the children to confide in their parents. Allowance must doubtless be made for native reticence; and there is an age at which boys normally tend to confide less in parents than in others; but in general the principle will hold. This fact in-

volves both a unique privilege, and a unique responsibility. Where the parent is the only one who knows, a subtle bond is woven between him and the child. But there is another side to this matter. A not less supreme test of right home relations is the willingness of the parent to confide in the children—in the matter, especially, of the mystery of birth and of reproduction. Here also is privilege and responsibility. Here also the parent is the only one who knows and at the same time knows (or should know) how to tell. But instead of confidence in the boy, there is, commonly, distrust; and instead of clear-eyed frankness there is sheepish and silly shrinking. Parents know, and they will not tell. Boys want to know, and they find out as they can. That which might come to them by degrees, as their questions ripen and their curiosity widens, is perhaps flung at them, ugly and undigestible; that which is essentially pure, and beautiful, and wonderful, is made to appear low and obscene. Many persons, thus thrust into the temple of life, as it were, by the back door, never recover from their first impression of pruriency. Some parents assert that their children never have any curiosity about such things. Do they suppose that they have begotten fools? Others are aware of the consuming curiosity, but fatuously hide their heads in the sand while the hired man or the neighbor's boy gives his polluted version. A knowledge of the truth, a pure mind, preëstablished confidential relations between parent and child, and brave common sense, are the solvents of this problem. A parent who has these will naturally say, when pressed by an eager lad for more satisfactory answers, "My dear boy, I will tell you all I know myself."

# Nature Study

## Leaves

By Anna Botsford Comstock

**L**EAVES of trees offer a natural and almost inevitable subject for Nature Study during the months when they bedeck our hills and valleys in brilliant hues. Yet the subject is of such a general character that it is too often taught in a purposeless and desultory manner. In Nature Study it is well for the teacher to have some definite purpose in her mind before she ventures to begin the teaching of the subject. Her thoughts should be the string on which the beads of her pupil's observations are to be strung; haphazard observations are of too little value to the child. Therefore, let us consider for a moment some of the objects, pedagogically speaking, which we should strive for in beginning the study of leaves.

### LEAF STUDY IN PRIMARY GRADES

They should be largely a study of color and form. Let the pupils collect leaves and classify them first according to colors. The autumnal tints offer a most excellent opportunity for training a child's eye to detect various shades in color. Later let the pupils classify the leaves on the basis of form. This is of great value to them as it teaches them to begin with that no two leaves are exactly alike, and gives them some idea of the infinite variety of Nature. This leaf work with the primary children may also be used for drawing with colored crayons or water color, and also for paper cutting for busy work.

### THE STUDY OF LEAVES IN INTERMEDIATE GRADES

With the older children the study of leaves naturally leads to the study of

trees. The child naturally compares and classifies leaves according to form and color and soon discovers for himself a species. This classification should not be imposed upon the pupil, but he should be led naturally to notice the different likenesses.

### THE USE OF THE FIELD NOTE-BOOK AND THE FIELD EXCURSION

Leaf study affords an excellent opportunity for a short, sharp, effective field excursion. Many teachers look upon the field excursion as a difficult voyage between the Scylla of hilarious seeing and wild questionings and the Charybdis of pupils lost or strayed or being brought home with broken limbs. All this is quite unnecessary if the teacher plans the work before starting so that the pupils know what they are sent out to see, especially if the teacher leads by doing the same work which she requires of the pupils. The one recess period is sufficient for an excursion to study leaves in almost any school except perhaps a few situated in congested city districts.

The field excursion naturally suggests that greatest of all helps in Nature Study, the field note-book. By no means compel the children to have these note-books, but have one yourself which you evidently prize and use constantly, and very soon you will find that the children will follow your example. Any little blank book with a pencil tied to it will do. We have in our possession some most interesting pupil's note-books which were blank account books of the family grocer. It must be remembered that the spirit in which the

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This is the first of a series of home Nature Study Lessons for the parents and teachers prepared by the Cornell Bureau of Nature Study. Lessons for the children of the Chautauqua Junior Naturalist Clubs will appear each month in "Boys and Girls," Ithaca, New York.

note-book is kept is more important than the book or the manner of keeping it. I have examined many field note-books kept by children of the intermediate grades which were full of interesting observations and graphic illustrations, and were precious beyond price to their owners. Such a note-book is a veritable mine for the teacher to work in securing from the pupil voluntary and happy exercises in language and drawing. Such a note-book, however, should be considered the personal property of the child and should never be criticized. The teacher should simply use it as a friendly gate which admits her to a knowledge of the child's interests and observations.

#### LESSON ON LEAVES

For leaf study an ordinary ten-cent blank book not smaller than six by eight inches will do very well. Take such a book to the tree for ten or fifteen minutes trying to cover the following points.

1. Describe the shape of the tree in a few words, that is, whether its trunk is bare for some distance, or if the limbs grow near the ground, and whether the branches at the top are spreading or close, and the general shape of the outline of the tree, that is, whether it is slim or broad.

2. Where are the leaves borne?

3. Are the leaves opposite each other on the twigs?

4. Is the leaf rough and hairy or is it shining and glossy?

5. What is the color of the leaf above? Below?

6. Has it changed color since summer?

7. Give approximate length and the width of the largest leaf that you happen to see.

8. Are the other leaves of the tree the same size and shape as the one you are studying?

9. Is the leaf petiole long or short?

10. Is there a bud in the axil where the petiole of the leaf joins the twigs?

11. What sort of an edge has the leaf?

12. What is the character of the veins of the leaf, that is, does each branch off from a mid-rib or do the veins themselves branch?

13. Do the veins extend to the edge of the leaf, and if so do they end in a point at the base of a notch?

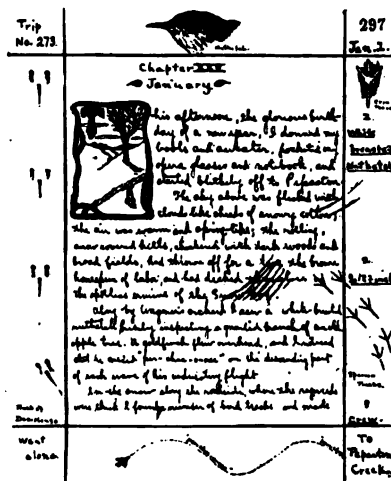
14. If the tree has fruit on it gather a specimen to press or draw in your note-book on the page with the leaf you have studied.

15. Bring the leaf and the fruit indoors with you and either press them or fasten them on the page opposite your notes or make drawings of them.

16. Place under them the name of the tree from which they came, if you know it.

Complete these exercises and make a full record of the length of time necessary for you to make these observations. If you are teaching, try it with your children and note if you need two or three of these excursions for them to complete the exercises.

All of the trees in the neighborhood may be studied in this way, and after a little the pupils will themselves carry the work home, and will thus have started the work of tree study in a practical way.



FROM A FIELD NOTE-BOOK



## A New Career

By Clinton Rogers Woodruff

Secretary of the National Municipal League, and First Vice-President of the American Civic Association.

**A** NEW career or profession has been opened up to young men during the past decade along the line of social settlement work. This has appealed strongly to men of spiritual impulse anxious to serve their fellow men, outside, however, of the lines of the more strictly religious orders. Still another career is opening up in the direction of the social secretary, who represents the employer in his desire to care and provide for the health, comfort and prosperity of his employees.

The social settlement worker has established himself, and his numbers show constant and encouraging increase. The social secretary is just making his way, but a few more years will see him as firmly established as the former and so it should be.

It was not, however, of these two comparatively new careers now open, that I wished to speak, but of still another, which in its way is more hopeful and suggestive than either of the others. Public life in America has not, in the past few decades, offered very many opportunities to the young man of high resolves, noble purposes, sincere public spirit. This has been particularly true during that period of our political history happening since the Civil War. There have been men in our public life who have deserved this description, but unfortunately they have been few, largely because of the situation or development of our politics. The use and extension of the "machine" has been responsible for the suppression of in-

dividuality. The application of the principles of concentration and organization to politics has been accompanied by abuses which have made politics—city, state and national—in most cases a by-word for mediocrity, if not corruption.

Latterly signs of a change have begun to appear. People are beginning to realize that political organizations are here to stay, but they must be rescued from the hands of those who debase them for selfish purposes and be made to serve the higher interests of the community. This may be said to be the object of the great majority of the more sincere and intelligent reform movements. When once these ends are achieved there will be enlarged opportunities for the young men of America to make of public life a career. In the meantime the growth of political problems, some of which have been due to the development of the machine idea, but more of which are due to the extension of governmental functions, has made a new career possible and inevitable.

The average citizen is too closely occupied to give time and attention to the many details of governmental activity. He wants to be an intelligent, capable, well informed citizen. He wants to discharge his duties faithfully and in the best interests of the community, but he has not the time to prepare himself adequately, and so, perforce, must depend upon some one else to guide and instruct him. He cannot depend with any degree of certainty upon his party organization because that has not as yet been emanci-

pated from the control of the selfish; so he falls back upon the advice and recommendations of some public-spirited body in which he has confidence, and the increased number of these is a direct response to this demand.

To be useful and successful these bodies must be managed by men of intelligence and integrity, and it is just here that the new careers I have in mind open up before the public-spirited young American who wants to be of service to his fellow men through public life. Already we have a sufficient number of such instances to show most clearly the scope of usefulness and opportunity opening up in this direction.

Perhaps the most successful reform organization (in the way of concrete, appreciable results) in the United States is the Municipal Voters' League of Chicago, which has constantly in its service two or three highly educated men who follow as carefully and conscientiously, as would the paid attorney or agent of a public service corporation, the transactions of Chicago's councils. These men know all the business that is transacted—know why it was done, in short they know as much, if not more about it than any one else in the city. Is it any wonder then that voters of Chicago follow the recommendations and advice of its Municipal Voters' League?

The City Club of New York has long had a political fund out of which it has supported a staff of trained men whose sole business it is to watch public business in New York City and Albany. The publications of the City Club, as well as those of the Citizens' Union of the same city are storehouses of useful and accurate information concerning those municipal affairs about which every conscientious citizen should know something.

Next to the Chicago body comes the San Francisco Merchants' Association which likewise has won the confidence and support of those whom it seeks to reach. It too has a corps of investiga-

tors and attorneys who devote their whole time and energy to a study of public affairs from the citizens' standpoint. The great work of the Merchants' Association of New York is carried on in the same way as is that of the Brooklyn League. No small part of the effectiveness of the activities of these bodies is due to the fact that they are in charge of carefully selected, competent men. A few months ago, when the Boston Good Government Club was formed at the instance of the Boston Chamber of Commerce, the first thing undertaken was to provide ample funds for the support and maintenance of the secretary, a young man of exceptional abilities, well qualified in every respect to carry on important business interests.

The Grand Rapids Civic Club has followed, to the great advantage of its work, a similar course; so has the Pittsburg Voters' League, the St. Louis Civic Improvement League, the Cincinnati Municipal Party, the Philadelphia Municipal League, the Cleveland Municipal Association, the Boston Twentieth Century Club, and the list continues to grow.

This new career has great possibilities before it. It offers to young college men, eager for public service, great opportunities, and it will not long remain critical and descriptive. It is a position of statesmanlike possibilities. It will become one of real constructive leadership, fraught with even greater advantages than those pertaining to public official positions, for as has been frequently pointed out of late by those who have cooperated to make a success of the National Municipal League, the great forward movements owe their introduction to the initiative of private citizens. Public officials oftentimes act only as the recorders of public sentiment.

Here then is the chance for the young man ambitious to serve his fellow men in public life. Here then lies the duty of public-spirited men of means to make such careers possible by adequate endowment.

## RICHMOND'S ART EXHIBITION

It is a question whether the residents of our large cities appreciate their opportunities as do those of the smaller towns. An instance is the case of Richmond, Indiana, with its 20,000 inhabitants, where the arts and crafts movement has, in its highest form, taken a hold on the people. In connection with the public school system there is an Art Association, whose object, as outlined in its constitution, is "to promote the welfare of art in Richmond, by giving appreciative encouragement to all local art workers: by providing art lectures; by giving a free annual exhibition which shall contain the work of the Art and Manual Training Departments of the public schools, the work of local artists and craftsmen, together with exhibits of work from representative American and foreign artists and craftsmen; by establishing a permanent collection of works of art; and by endeavoring to be influential in all matters pertaining to the beautifying of our city." The fees for membership are nominal and any one is eligible to membership. The interest of the association is not centered on painting alone, but ceramics, artistic bookbinding, porcelain, hand made laces and art needlework receive attention.

In the recent eighth annual exhibition, covering a period of over two weeks, the attendance equalled over one-half the population of Richmond, besides many who were present from adjoining towns. The city authorities, in entire accord with the movement, besides giving the free use of the finest school building, made an appropriation for the expenses of the exhibition.

In a most attractively arranged catalogue of the exhibition nearly eight hundred items are mentioned, of which more than a quarter are paintings. Among these are canvases by Diaz, Corot, Dabigny, Monet, Pissarro, Renoir and Sisley, while the American artists are represented by J. Ottis Adams, Chapman, Bundy, Curran, Bucknell, J. G. Brown,

Ben Foster and Henry and Gustav Henry Mosler, and others.

This coöperation of the city authorities with the lovers of art for the benefit of all the people is exceedingly suggestive to other communities. Richmond's experience was described and illustrated in the article entitled "A Democratic Art Movement," which appeared in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for June, 1903.



## WOMEN'S FEDERATION CIVIC WORK

The General Federation of Women's Clubs, composed of seven hundred and fifty separate organizations and more than one million members, extending from Maine to California, is doing much for the civic betterment of the whole country. While it is true that one-half of the allied organizations are devoted to special purposes, as art, Shakespeare and the like, there is a general thread of coöperation running through all, and on the subject of Civics, Household Economics, Philanthropy, Legislative and Civil Service Reform and Forestry concerted action has been enlisted. Committees of the General Federation formulate plans of action which are sent to the various clubs and these are used as the basis for work. As an instance, the Committee on Child Labor Legislation sends out a letter on the subject given to its care, giving a synopsis of the evils of child labor, with the arguments for and against restrictions. Quoting from this letter we find the following:

"The argument against legislation which has been most universally encountered has been that the earnings of little children are needed to support widowed mothers. The committee . . . is convinced that the argument has been unfairly used, that the number of poor widows in any community is limited, and among the limited number there are comparatively few whose oldest children are between the ages of ten and fourteen years—the time when the temptation to use of premature labor of children is strongest."

After suggesting how to secure the

data on the subject, by dividing manufacturing cities into districts, the committee urges action in "persuading the children thus employed to return to school, undertaking to pay the amount of weekly wages which the child formerly earned to his widowed mother every Saturday night, upon presentation of a certificate signed by the child's teacher testifying to his regular school attendance the entire five days of the previous week,—the money to be called and regarded as a scholarship. This plan greatly resembles one in successful operation in Switzerland for twenty-four years, where it is carried on by the state authorities."

It is pointed out, as shown by the National Consumer's League, that in the ten years between 1890 and 1900 there has been a marked increase in illiteracy in those states where manufacturing interests control, showing that the dependence of the industries on child labor has been a set-back to the cause of education.

All but fifteen of the states have some form of compulsory education, but in many cases the legislation remains a dead letter requiring some intelligent, concentrated action to bring the public to a realization of the evil and its remedy, which the Federation has volunteered to do.



#### ST. LOUIS MUNICIPAL PLAYGROUND

St. Louis has just secured its first municipal playground. This, in comparison with what other cities are doing in that line, is comparatively small but to St. Louis it means much, for it commits the city to the policy of establishing down town parks in the crowded tenement districts. This new municipal playground is the result of the active campaign which the Civic Improvement League of St. Louis has been carrying on. Three years ago the League established six model playgrounds in the tenement districts. An ordinance was prepared under the direction of the League and introduced into the

Municipal Assembly providing for the appointment of a Municipal Bath and Playground Commission, the members of this Commission to serve without pay. This Commission has been appointed from the members of the Civic Improvement League's committees, the League's purpose or desire being to have the municipal playgrounds under the direction of men who have the movement at heart.

The bill providing for the playground was also prepared by the League and was readily passed by the Municipal Assembly. The League had shown the practical side of this work and carried it on so successfully, that the city officials readily took up with the idea. Since this municipal playground has been acquired by the city, a movement has been started for the establishment of several others.



#### JUNIOR CITIZENS

Prof. L. H. Bailey pleads "for the type of education that aims to put the pupil into the systematic contact with his daily life." As a step in this direction the mayor and superintendent of Springfield, Missouri, visited the public schools, organizing a Junior Civic League in each of the upper grade rooms. These leagues have given the mayor enthusiastic aid in his efforts for making Springfield a more beautiful city.

In one of the large Chicago schools leagues have been formed in the different rooms with officers and committees so planned that every boy and girl citizen has something to do, thus learning in delightful fashion many lessons not nearly so attractive when printed in book form.

One Chicago lad says, "you have no idea how industrious a boy can be if he only wants to be." Civics in the school awakens interest in the city, state and nation by showing civic relations to the pupil's immediate environment. The boy is led to "want" to do many helpful, wholesome things that he would otherwise consider unwelcome tasks.

Educators are becoming increasingly appreciative of the happy correlation between nature study and community life. Recognizing this relationship *Boys and Girls*, the organ of the Chautauqua Junior Naturalists, will this year include a civic department. Encouragement will be given to the formation of Junior Citizens' Leagues, or Junior Civic Leagues in any school room where the teacher approves of the plan. A charter, badges, certificates at the end of the year, and a joint meeting with the Junior Naturalists at Chautauqua next summer, add to the importance of the plan. The editor of *Boys and Girls*, Ithaca, New York, or Civic Coöperation, 5711 Kimbark Ave., Chicago, will forward all necessary information.



#### FROM THE FIELD

The New England Association of Park Superintendents has become the American Association of Park Superintendents. William S. Egerton of Albany, N. Y., is president, John W. Duncan of Boston is secretary.

The Landscape Architectural Committee of the South Park Improvement Association, Chicago, secured this year special rates from reliable wholesale nurserymen for trees in quantities, planted properly and guaranteed.

To the standard government publication on

"Beautifying the Home Grounds" (Farmer's Bulletin No. 185) must now be added in the list of helpful pamphlets, Bulletin No. 105, issued by the agricultural experiment station of the University of Wisconsin entitled, "The Improvement of the Home Grounds," and "How to Plant the Home Grounds," by J. Horace McFarland, issued by *The Ladies' Home Journal*, price ten cents.

In a useful little booklet issued with the compliments of *The Youth's Companion*, Warren H. Manning, chairman of Out Door Art Department of the American Civic Association, by a series of cleverly arranged photographs shows how the handsomest buildings may be marred by their natural surroundings and also how one may make a semblance of paradise of the humblest home. The plan of the booklet is to arouse interest in the matter in the public schools, and to assist in the work, a list of ornamental trees, shrubs and vines, which will grow anywhere is given.

The Women's Cub Improvement League of Kalamazoo, Michigan, aims to be eminently practical. It has recently attracted favorable press notice by its efforts to clean the streets of Kalamazoo, receiving the coöperation of the street cleaning department which placed its best men at the disposal of the league. The purpose is to impress the property holders with the fact that cleanliness in a city enhances the value of property, and elevates the standard of the population to the advantage of the business interests. Another of the activities of the league is in providing a visiting nurse to attend without charge to cases of sickness among the poor.

## News Summary and Current Events Programs

#### DOMESTIC

August 1.—United States government protests against the seizure of the New York and Bermudez Asphalt Company's properties by Venezuela.

5.—Alton B. Parker resigns his office as Chief Justice of the New York Court of Appeals.

6.—European squadron of three ships, under Rear-Admiral Jewell, ordered to Smyrna to secure recognition of rights of American citizens in Turkey. Picketing by strikers is declared illegal by Judge John Hunt of the Superior Court of California.

7.—In train wreck near Pueblo, Colo., 76 passengers are killed.

10.—Ex-Judge Alton B. Parker is notified at his home at Esopus, N. Y., of his nomination for president by the Democratic convention.

11.—Wheat is sold in New York at \$1.07¾.

Extensive naturalization frauds are discovered in New York.

12.—It is announced that President Roosevelt will make no speeches during the campaign.

13.—Turkey grants to the United States privileges for American citizens and schools equal to those enjoyed by other nations, under a "most favored nation" agreement.

15.—Annual encampment of the Grand Army of the Republic begins at Boston.

16.—At Statesboro, Georgia, two negroes, sentenced to death for murdering a white family, are taken from the jail and burned to death. Idaho Democrats adopt an "anti-Mormon" plank.

18.—General W. W. Blackmar of Massachusetts is chosen commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic; Denver is selected as the place for the next encampment.

20.—Cloudburst at Globe, Ariz., destroys seven lives and \$500,000 worth of property.



23.—Governor of Georgia appoints a court to investigate the lynching of two negroes at Statesboro on the sixteenth. American mining congress declares for a United States department of mining and metallurgy.

26.—Court of inquiry in the Statesboro lynching finds that the sheriff assisted the lynchers.

30.—United States troops under Gen. Corbin participated in the dedication of a monument in the memory of Confederate soldiers killed at the first battle of Bull Run. Cable is opened from Seattle to Alaska.

31.—*Slocum* Relief Committee submits a report to Mayor McClellan of New York showing an expenditure of \$124,205.50 for the relief of 437 out of 590 families suffering from the *Slocum* disaster.

#### FOREIGN

August 1.—Japanese, with a loss of 400, capture Simichung; Russians lose 1,500.

3.—Japanese loss in battles of Yangtse Pass and Yushulikzu is 972 officers and men. Russians abandon Haicheng after loss of 27 officers and 1,000 men.

5.—Russian fleet, while attempting a sortie from Port Arthur, is repulsed by Japanese.

6.—France orders 6,000 troops to Tonquin to forestall Boxer uprising.

7.—Venezuelan troops loot stores belonging to American asphalt companies.

12.—A son and heir to the Russian throne is born to the Tzar and Tzarina.

14.—Russian Vladivostok squadron, with the loss of the *Kurick* and the disabling of two other vessels, is defeated in the straits of Korea.

15.—Tzar names Grand Duke Michael to be-

come regent in the event of his death before Tzarevitch attains his majority.

19.—Japanese capture Anshanshan, one of the Russians' chief southern defenses. Russian gunboat is sunk by a mine at Liaotishan.

21.—Presidents of Honduras, Nicaragua and Salvador agree with each other to maintain peace in Central American republics.

22.—President Castro, pending decision of the Venezuelan courts, refuses to restore the properties of the American asphalt company.

23.—Tzar grants amnesty to people of Finland for all political offenses except cases in which murder has been committed.

26.—In fight south of Liao-Yang, Russians lose 1,350 men.

28.—Russians are driven back from outposts of Liao-Yang, losing 2,100 men.

31.—Heavy fighting for several days around Port Arthur and Liao-Yang, with heavy losses reported from both sides.

#### OBITUARY

August 1.—Ex-Governor Robert E. Pattison of Pennsylvania, aged fifty-three.

9.—George G. West, Ex-United States Senator from Missouri.

10.—M. Waldeck-Rousseau, former premier of France.

16.—Ex-Governor George E. Lounsbury of Connecticut.

19.—Rear-Admiral E. M. Shepherd, U. S. N., dies at Jeffrey, N. H.

30.—Gen. Milo S. Hascall, a veteran of the Civil War, dies at Chicago.

31.—Dr. Thomas Herran, minister of Colombia at Washington at time of Panama revolt, dies at Liberty, N. Y.

### CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS

#### DOMESTIC

1. Roll-call: Lessons from the Louisiana Purchase Exposition; brief reports from visitors or authoritative articles.
2. Papers: (a) How Party Managers manufacture Public Opinion in Campaigns; (b) Review of the Olympian Games, origin, history and revival, including the third series at St. Louis; (c) Mr. Carnegie's Hero Fund: Appreciation or Criticism? (d) What are the rights of American Citizens in Foreign Countries and How Conferred? (e) Character Sketches of the late Robert E. Pattison, ex-governor of Pennsylvania and Senator George Graham Vest of Missouri.
3. Address: Campaign Journalism: The Waning influence of the Editorial.
4. Readings: (a) From "Home Education," by Walter L. Hervey, *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for October; (e) From "Frenzied Finance," by Thomas W. Lawson, *Everybody's* for September; (c) From "The Present Crisis in Trade-Union Morals," by Jane Addams, *North American Review* for August; (d) From "The Reign of Graft and the Remedy," by R. M. Baker, *The Arena* for September; (e) From "The Price of Oil," by Ida M. Tarbell, *McClure's* for September.
5. Discussion: Prosperity: What is it?

#### FOREIGN

1. Map Review: Show progress of the Russian-Japanese war during the last month.
2. Papers: (a) The Issue between France and the Vatican; (b) Reforms in Russia proclaimed by the Tzar upon the birth of an heir to the throne; (c) Peace Agreement in Central America (made public August 21); (d) Venezuelan asphalt Imbroglio; (e) Character sketches of Earl Grey, new Governor General of Canada; the late M. Waldeck-Rousseau, ex-premier of France; the late Hungarians, Antonin Dvorák, musician, and Maurus Jókai, novelist.
3. Address: The Significance of Japanese control of Korea.
4. Readings: (a) From "The Russian Lourdes," *Century* for September; (b) From "America, Asia and the Pacific," by Wolf von Schierbrand (Henry Holt Co.); (c) From "A Reading Journey Through Japan," by Anna C. Harts-horne, *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for August; (d) From "Workmen's Insurance in Germany," by Fritz Kestner, *North American Review* for September; (e) From "World Organization Secures World Peace," by R. L. Bridgman, *The Atlantic* for September.
5. Discussion: Is the battle of Liao-Yang to be classed among the greatest battles of the world and why?

# Chautauqua Spare Minute Course

The Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, complete in the pages of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for 1904-05 beginning with September, has been arranged to meet the demand for a short course of systematic reading in place of haphazard, hit or miss reading to no purpose. The course consists of the seven leading serial topics entitled, "Social Progress in Europe," "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany," "German Master Musicians," "Civic Lessons from Europe," "Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare," "How the American Boy is Educated," and "Nature Study" (the last named beginning in October).

This brief course offers to individuals a means of making the time spent in reading count for something during the year. It is planned to give a background, a standard of judgment, power of discrimination, sense of proportion, in a word education along lines of present-day importance, that will make all one's reading of use to him.

Additional articles and the regular departments of the magazine relate to features of the course and constitute important sidelights upon it. "Highways and Byways" editorial comment on the current events with special reference to the serial topics, "Survey of Civic Betterment," "Talk About Books," "News Summary," programs, helps and hints, and special supplementary articles represent a useful and entertaining variety.

One does not need to become a member of any organization to get the benefit of this "group plan" of reading. There is no membership fee and the course is offered to individual readers complete in the magazine for the year.

## RECOGNITION FROM CHAUTAUQUA

In the last magazine of the year containing Spare Minute Course material, blanks will be printed upon the filling out of which a Spare Minute Course Certificate will be awarded by Chautauqua Institution.

Persons will be entitled to a certificate who have read the Spare Minute Course serials named above. These will be known as "Specified Reading." For reading the other "recommended" serials and departments in the magazine a seal on the certificate will be awarded.

## SPARE MINUTE PROGRAMS

The Chautauqua Spare Minute Course is especially adapted to the use of clubs and societies. It should be particularly helpful to clubs of men, school literary societies, church young people's societies, organizations in shops and stores, and other groups of busy people with few opportunities and limited time.

The program suggestions outlined under this heading will be based upon features of the "Social Progress Year" of topics as presented from month to month in this magazine. It is better to choose a few program suggestions and carry them out well than to try to do too much at a single session.

Define terms: Revolution, rebellion, revolt, autocracy, oligarchy, monarchy, plutocracy, hierarchy, third estate.

Summary: Article on "The Afterglow of the French Revolution," by F. A. Ogg, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Discussion: Is the French Revolutionist conception of "equality" an Impracticable Ideal?

Readings: (a) From "The French Revolution," by Shailer Mathews; (b) From "Twentieth Century Belgium," by Clare de Graffenried, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*; (c) From "Maison du Peuple," by Mary R. Cranston in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*; (d) From chapter IV in Judson's "Europe in the Nineteenth Century" (Scribners); (e) From "Bacteriology and Contagious Diseases," by H. W. Conn, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

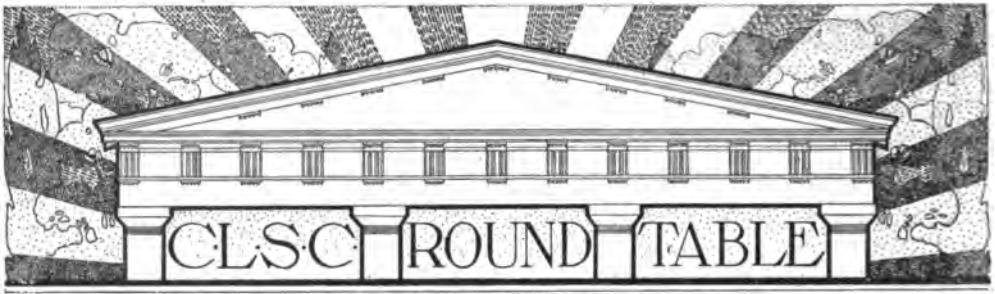
Address: Privilege, Opportunity, Duty in the Twentieth Century.

Paper: Freedom of the Press as Safeguard or Menace to Democracy.

Debate: Resolved, That Napoleon did more Harm than Good to the Cause of Civilization.

Additional program material may be found in "Current Events Programs," "Suggestive Programs for Local Circles," "The Travel Club," etc., on other pages of this issue of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Correspondence or inquiries may be addressed to the Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, Chautauqua, New York.



## COUNSELORS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE

JESSE L. HURLBUT, D. D.

LYMAN ABBOTT, D. D.

HENRY W. WARREN, D. D.

J. M. GIBSON, D. D.

EDWARD EVERETT HALE, D. D.

JAMES H. CARLISLE, LL. D.

WM. C. WILKINSON, D. D.

W. F. KANE, D. D.

MISS KATE F. KIMBALL, Executive Secretary.

Professor Ogg's article on the "Afterglow of the Revolution" for this month is very opportune. It is a good thing to take a large view of the whole revolutionary period at this time when we are beginning our detailed study of the Revolution itself through Professor Mathews' book. It is the advantage which a traveler feels when he studies the map of a city before he goes out to explore its parks and boulevards and it will be worth while for us to read and reread this comprehensive chapter of Professor Ogg's while we are studying in detail the fascinating chapters of Mr. Mathews' little volume.



### THE "LEWIS MILLER" CLASS

The graduation of the Class of 1904 was a significant event in the history of the C. L. S. C. The class bears the name of "Lewis Miller," one of the founders of Chautauqua, and the beautiful banner which has led it for four years was the gift of the Miller family. The members counted it a great privilege to welcome to their class-room and to their anniversary exercises, Mrs. Lewis Miller who was unanimously made an honorary member. The social gatherings of the class developed a strong feeling of comradeship and the members showed an energy and enthusiasm worthy of their name. Their obligations toward the class room in Alumni Hall were promptly met by voluntary offerings and subscriptions so that they passed the arches on Recognition

Day with a clear record. Mr. Francis Wilson, who has shown untiring devotion to the work of the C. L. S. C. and who has led a circle in his opera company throughout the four years, was chosen president and telegraphed his acceptance with characteristic humility: "Your president congratulates you on his absence, rejoices in your hour of happiness and is proud of the honor you have done him." Mr. Richard Burton who at the request of the class wrote the graduation poem, was elected to honorary membership and the members showed their appreciation of the hard work done by their treasurer, Mrs. House, by presenting her with the gold graduate's pin of the C. L. S. C. Chancellor John H. Vincent, whose return to Chautauqua after his absence in Europe made the season of 1904 a sort of jubilee year, preached a baccalaureate sermon on Sunday, August 15, from the text, "Let us go on unto perfection." The Vigil service in the evening in the Hall of Philosophy by the light of the Athenian watch-fires, was led by Dr. Hurlbut—the first vigil in the new Hall which is as yet but a prophecy of what it is to become. On Tuesday evening the 1904s met their comrades of the C. L. S. C. classes at the annual Feast of Lanterns. They heard the dignified Class of '82, "The Pioneers," sing "Auld Lang Syne" and give their class yell, and the '04s felt humble! They looked upon '05 girding up its loins for the final race, and upon '08 with the untried future before it, and they realized

the joy of achievement. Recognition Day saw nearly one hundred members of '04 and scores of those from other classes, ready to pass the arches. The inspiring Recognition address by Mr. Edward Howard Griggs set forth the splendid possibilities of "Self Culture through the Vocation," and the long, bright day closed with the Alumni Banquet of three hundred graduates, when the '04s through the mysterious "salt" ceremony were initiated into the Society of the Hall in the Grove. Dr. J. M. Buckley, Mr. Edward Howard Griggs, and Reverend Hugh Black,

of Edinburgh were the special guests of the occasion, and Professor George E. Vincent as toastmaster conducted the exercises in a manner so eminently satisfactory that the guests lingered till a late hour.



BISHOP JOHN H. VINCENT AND MR.  
EDWARD HOWARD GRIGGS

Recognition Day, Chautauqua, N. Y.

#### SOME FAR-AWAY GRADUATES OF 1904

When the Chautauqua diplomas are mailed this fall to absent graduates, one will cross the ocean to Devonshire, Eng-



BANNER OF THE CLASS OF 1904

land, to be claimed by Lieutenant John D. Rogers, of the British Navy. Lieutenant Rogers formed a circle during the early part of his four years when he was stationed on H. M. S. *Terror* at Bermuda, but his change of residence to Devonport, England, left him to finish the course alone. The members of '04 have pleasant recollections of his visit to Chautauqua two years ago and the following message received from him in August was read at a class meeting:

"I am very happy to enclose the 'form' filled in for the annual certificate. I have thoroughly enjoyed the whole course and have learned a great deal from it which will always be useful. I am sorry that I am unable to pass the Golden Gate with my classmates to whom I wish every success and happiness." He enclosed the accompanying picture as a suggestion of the environment under which he had carried on his course. He describes the scene as "young stokers at gymnastic instruction between the drill shed and one of the barrack blocks of four rooms, each containing two hundred and fifty men. There are four such blocks to house five thous-

and men besides the officers' block for nearly two hundred officers."

Two members of the "Lewis Miller" Class in Yokohama, Japan, composed of Americans, are ready to graduate, while the native Japanese are represented by Mr. Tamenosuke Ishibashi, a journalist living in Osaka.

The Philippine Islands also contribute a graduate who is a member of the Signal Corps of the United States Army stationed at Manila. He writes:

"I, as a lone reader in these far-away isles have had no easy time in completing the prescribed four years' course. Most of my work has been done under difficulties, but I would not have missed the course for a great deal. From it I have gained inspirations that will be of benefit to me through life. I sincerely hope the success of the C. L. S. C. will be as great in the future as it has been in the past, spreading its radiance to the uttermost parts of the globe."



YOUNG STOKERS, R. N., AT GYMNAS-  
TIC INSTRUCTION  
Royal Naval Barracks, Devonport, England.

#### THE VICENNIAL OF THE CLASS OF '84

The members of '84 early in their history earned for themselves the name of the "Irrepressibles" and this year, as they gathered in their cosy cottage at Chautauqua to celebrate their "double decennial," the old-time ardor seemed in no whit diminished. Mrs. W. H. Westcott, who has been historian for all the class anniversaries, was more than equal to the demands of a vicennial occasion and

under the skilful touch of her pen the mellow radiance of twenty years cast a soft halo over the redoubtable deeds of '84. She recalled the early days when class spirit had scarcely begun to develop, for the '82s and '83s were quite content with the prestige gained from being "the whole thing" until '84 developed such an agitation that every class since that time has felt the impetus. "We were leaders at least in the line of inventions," Mrs. Westcott wrote. "We were the first to have class organization, class name, class motto, class badge, class excursion, class banquet, class paper, class memorial, a decorated hall and amphitheater and class flower—the dear old golden rod."

The class cottage shown in our illustration was purchased in '86, but it also has shared the spirit of progress and its original features can scarcely be recognized in the lineaments of the present building. Not content with this, the class secured the adjoining lot so that no building might ever obstruct their view of the Hall in the Grove. Few members of '84 are possessed of great wealth, yet every financial venture has been accomplished with apparent ease. An electric light for the adjoining park was '84's gift to Chautauqua at the class decennial and a column for the new Hall of Philosophy happily indicates their irrepressible exuberance at the end of twenty years. These two decades have meant many separations as well as many happy reunions, but the spirit of eternal youth which pervades the class assures them of an unquestioned place among the Chautauqua "immortals."



#### THE CLASS OF 1905

Three years ago a very enthusiastic class started its Chautauqua career. They were a broad-minded and large-hearted set of people and they meant to have the "world spirit" represented by their class, so they chose the name "Cosmopolitans" and for their flower the Cosmos. The



'84 CLASS COTTAGE, CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.

members of the class have been true to their ideals and now a year before graduation they are gathering up all their resources and making plans for the summer of 1905. The class has a beautiful banner, the gift of Mrs. R. B. Parker of New Orleans, and the members are diligently raising their quota for Alumni Hall which gives them a permanent dwelling place in the famous C. L. S. C. club house at Chautauqua. If you are a member and are feeling a little discouraged because perchance, you are a year or so behind in your reading, dismiss all such anxiety and make a fresh start now. The four years' course is not a formidable affair and even a very busy Chautauquan can make up the reading quite easily. The subtle enemy of many readers is procrastination. There is much burning of midnight oil in February and March which might easily be avoided if October and November were made to yield up a few extra hours. If you are a 1905

don't consider yourself beaten no matter how far behind you may be. Members of the class are already planning for their graduation at various assemblies next summer. The class at Chautauqua held a joyous reunion just before Recognition Day and will be ready to welcome all comers next August.



#### '94 DECENNIAL

Among other important events of the Chautauqua season was the decennial jubilee of the Class of '94. The class had experienced some difficulty in raising its quota for its room in Alumni Hall, and the members attending the Decennial were deservedly jubilant because their persistent loyalty and enthusiasm had at last secured the amount and enabled the class to meet all its obligations. Representatives from other classes gathered with the '94s and presented their congratulations. Rev. A. C. Ellis, of Erie, Pa., the class

president, took charge of the exercises and paid a well-earned tribute to Miss Anna M. Thomson, the secretary, who has shown untiring devotion to class interests. A marked feature of the Decennial was the presence of Chancellor Vincent whose words of reminiscence and prophecy made the occasion one of inspiration.



COTTON STATES C. L. S. C. GROUP, 1904,  
CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.

Other C. L. S. C. features of the season were the delightful Rallying Day exercises early in August when representatives from circles all over the country, brought greetings, and a member of the C. L. S. C. from South Africa, Reverend J. J. Ross, told how Chautauqua had reached into his far-away mission field. The Rallying Day out-of-door reception usually held in St. Paul's Grove was transferred to the stately grove near the Aula Christi with such happy effect that it seemed to establish a precedent for the future occasions. Daily C. L. S. C. councils enabled members to give and receive many suggestions relating to their work, and the Round Tables held in the Hall of Philosophy brought to persons outside of the cherished circle some idea of the privileges awaiting them should they decide to cast in their lot with those who represent the bone and sinew of Chautauqua.

#### THE CLASS OF 1908

"To strive, to seek, to find,  
And not to yield."

The above motto from Tennyson's "Ulysses" is to be the watchword of the new C. L. S. C. Class of 1908. The members of the class voted unanimously to adopt Tennyson as their name and the red rose as their emblem. The spirit of the class was from the outset most harmonious and all entered upon their responsibilities as Chautauquans with great enthusiasm. They elected as president, Dr. W. H. Hickman, president of the Chautauqua Board of Trustees, and with a fine array of vice-presidents, a secretary and treasurer they were speedily in good working order. The committee appointed to arrange for a temporary banner, evolved a very creditable standard which was borne aloft on Recognition Day. The class was full of projects for making its influence felt, and started not only a banner fund and a building fund, but begged the privilege of a share in the new Hall of Philosophy. Many of the members propose to start circles as soon as they get home, and as their membership already represents states from New Jersey to California, great things are expected. The class felt peculiar pride in claiming the first native Filipino ever enrolled in the C. L. S. C., Señorita Maria del Pilar Zamora, a teacher in the Manila Normal School and at present in charge of the model school at the Filipino village at St. Louis. The class organization is necessarily effected at Chautauqua but all members who take up the C. L. S. C. work for the first time this fall are members of 1908. Many new members have been enrolled at the different summer assemblies. The names of the officers will be found in the Class Directory on page 198 and in the Round Table each month, note will be made of new circles organized. Any members who want to have a share in the various class enterprises can secure full information about them from the treasurer, Mr. Conrad V. Murphree, Gadsden.

Ala. Every member is urged to lend a hand in making 1908 the greatest class in the history of the C. L. S. C. Send to the Chautauqua Office at Chautauqua, N. Y., for circulars for distribution. Induce your pastor, if possible, to hold a Chautauqua Vesper Service and bring the plan before his people. Copies of the Vesper Service will be furnished free by Chautauqua and members have an opportunity to render a real service to their communities in this way. Let every member of 1908 "strive" to get others interested.



#### MUSIC STUDY BY CHAUTAUQUA CIRCLES

Mr. Surette's article on Handel in this number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* opens up a very interesting field of study which can be made especially effective in the circles. It is suggested that each circle appoint a committee to look up the musical facilities of the town and secure if possible some competent musician to take charge of an evening's program devoted to Handel. The suggestions made by Mr. Surette should be followed out as closely as possible. Quite possibly some one in your town has a piano and the circle could arrange to rent the music rolls and make use of them several times. It would be a very interesting and profitable exercise to devote the last half hour of each circle meeting for the month to music study, and so be able to hear the musical selections repeatedly until the members become familiar with them. The best way to understand and enjoy music is to know it as we know our favorite poems. Each member should as a preparation for these musical studies look up the details of Handel's life in the books recommended by Mr. Surette.



#### A BOOK PARTY

Miss Mary E. Merington, the leader of the girls' Outlook Club at Chautauqua, prepared this summer a very clever series of cards for a book party which was given for the benefit of the Chautauqua local

library. Some two hundred people were present and a fine sum was secured for the purchase of books. The ingenious character of the cards led to so many inquiries from those present, for the privilege of renting them for church social



MIDDLE STATES C. L. S. C. GROUP, 1904,  
CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.

gatherings, etc., that Miss Merington has decided to get them out in somewhat more durable form. This will make them available for Chautauqua circles and will offer a chance for a very delightful entertainment. Many Chautauquans are at the present time revolving schemes for helping to raise funds to complete the Hall of Philosophy and the book party idea offers a very effective plan. The cards of which there are one hundred, ten by eleven inches in size, illustrate well-known books. They are very attractively designed, many of them in colors. With each set Miss Merington will furnish numbered sheets of paper, with pencils attached sufficient for one hundred people. Each card is also numbered and as the name of the book is guessed, the player writes the name of the book against the corresponding number on the sheet. The person who guesses the largest number should be rewarded with a wreath of laurel. It would add to the attractiveness of such a party if the guests would themselves impersonate books. The cards which will be put up in very compact form will be loaned to



any circle, for a single evening's entertainment, for five dollars, the circle paying also expressage on the package both ways. We are very glad to make this plan available for Chautauquans, who by selling tickets at twenty-five cents each can provide a literary entertainment of a high order and also raise funds for the new Hall of Philosophy, their local libraries or any other cherished projects. Orders should be sent early as the number of sets available is limited. Send to Chautauqua Institution, Chautauqua, N. Y.



## NOTES

A very valuable book for supplementary study this year is "The Social Unrest," by John Graham Brooks, and the present interest in social problems is indicated by the fact that the publishers have recently issued a twenty-five cent edition. Circles and readers wishing to secure it may send an order to the Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y.

There are a great many individual

readers of the C. L. S. C. course who may be inclined to pass over the Travel Club suggestions for program work in circles, supposing that they have no interest for the lone reader. But this is not the case, for the programs give references to sidelights of many kinds upon the course, and individual readers will find it very refreshing to make excursions into these fields of supplementary reading.

A very effective means of presenting the C. L. S. C. is by means of lantern slides, and many circles who have lantern facilities can arrange a very pleasant evening's program with the stereopticon. Chautauqua Institution will be very glad to lend sets of slides for such a purpose. These slides will be furnished without expense except that of transportation. In this connection we are also very glad to call attention to the admirable "Farrar Collection" of lantern slides, to be secured through the Frances Farrar Co. Circles can supplement their year's studies by an occasional "open meeting" with the stereopticon to the great profit of all.



## ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON OCTOBER READINGS

## A READING JOURNEY IN BELGIUM AND GERMANY

1. "The Lion of Flanders," by Henri Conscience, because it idealized the thoughts and longings of the Flemish race. 2. The French and Flemish languages are both officially recognized in Belgium. 3. The Walloons are a mixed Teutonic, Italic and Celtic people in southeast Belgium and adjacent parts. 4. Neerwinden plain is the scene of two battles—that of July 29, 1693, the battle of Landen, in which the French defeated the English, and of March 18, 1793, when the Austrians defeated the French. 5. Don Juan, a name given to John of Austria, was governor of the Netherlands from 1576 till his death, in 1578. 6. The colors of Belgium are black, yellow and red, the colors of old Brabant. 7. The Hanseatic League was a confederation lasting from 1241-1669 of the Hanse towns in northern Germany and adjacent countries with affiliated cities throughout Europe to promote commerce by sea and land and for protection against pirates and hostile governments. 8. There were two Battles of the Spurs: the first being a victory for the Flemings over the French at Courtrai, 1302: so called on account of the quantity of gilt spurs captured; the second was the victory of the English over the French at Guinegate, in 1513: so called because of the flight of the French.

## SOCIAL PROGRESS IN EUROPE

1. In England reform and long been in progress. It had started even in Austria. Total lack of popular government in France left the common people without resort except to arms. Enthusiastic and excitable character of the French. French lack of reverence for the past, and for all institutions. More ready to destroy than most other peoples. 2. In England, George III; Russia, Catherine II; Spain, Charles IV; Austria, Archduke Joseph II, who was also Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire or Germany; Italy was divided—Venice and Genoa were republics; Milan and Lombardy belonged to Austria; the Pope ruled the secular states in the middle of the peninsula; Piedmont and Naples were kingdoms, and other provinces were petty principalities. 3. Claude Joseph Rouget de Lisle, a French engineer, in a moment of enthusiasm, wrote the Marseillaise at Strasburg, April 24, 1792. It was first called *Chant de guerre pour l'armee du Rhin*—War song for the army of the Rhine. 4. St. Genevieve, reputed to have saved the city from Attila by prayer, 541 A. D., is the patron saint of Paris. 5. The arms of Paris are a white galley (in heraldry, an old-fashioned ship with one mast and rowed with oars) on a red ground, and above this three golden fleur-de-lis on a blue band or strip.

## OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS

## C. L. S. C. MOTTOES

*"We Study the Word and the Works of God." "Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."  
"Never be Discouraged."*

## C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

OPENING DAY—October 1.  
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.  
MILTON DAY—December 9.  
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.  
LANIER DAY—February 3.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.  
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.  
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.  
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Sunday after first Tuesday.  
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.  
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.

## OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR NOVEMBER

NOVEMBER 5-12—  
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "Twentieth Century Belgium"  
Required Book: "The French Revolution." Chapter V.  
NOVEMBER 12-19—  
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Twentieth Century Belgium."  
Required Book: "The French Revolution." Chapter VI.

NOVEMBER 19-26—  
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "Social Progress in Europe."  
Required Book: "The French Revolution." Chapters VII and VIII.  
NOVEMBER 26-DECEMBER 3—  
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "German Master Musicians." Handel.  
Required Book: "The French Revolution." Chapters IX and X.

## SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

Circle leaders will find under the head of "The Travel Club" programs additional suggestions for programs relating to the Reading Journey which may be substituted for some of the following if desired. See special paragraph in Round Table regarding Music Program.

- NOVEMBER 5-12—
1. Map Review: The cities of Belgium with respect to their present industrial progress. (See required article also "Belgian Life in Town and Country" and other helps in bibliography.)
  2. Reading: "How They Brought the Good News from Ghent to Aix," by Robert Browning.
  3. Roll-call: Brief reports on "Human Brotherhood put into Practice" in Belgium (see article on *Maison du Peuple* in this magazine, "The Social Unrest," Chapter XI; "Belgian Socialism," *Outlook*, 71: 795 (Aug. 16, '02), also "The Belgian Political Situation," *Independent*, 54: 970-73 (Ap. 24, '02).
  4. Paper or Reading: Biographical sketch of Rubens (see "Masters in Art" in bibliography).
  5. Descriptions of the pictures by Rubens in "Masters in Art" also of the picture by de Vos in required article (for the latter see works on Flemish art).
  6. Discussion: "The Art of Rubens." (Four members should be appointed to take up in turn the four articles under this heading in "Masters in Art" and show their application as far as possible to the photographs.)

- NOVEMBER 12-19—
1. Map Review: The Congo Free State, showing its relation to adjoining territories.
  2. Paper: The Story of the Congo Free State (see articles in bibliography, "Belgian Life in Town and Country" and other helps).

3. Brief sketch of Anton Van Dyck (see "Masters in Art").
4. Discussion of his style as illustrated in the pictures given in the monograph. The criticisms on pp. 25-33 should be assigned to different members, to be applied to the pictures.
5. Readings: Selections from late magazine articles on the Van Dyck Exhibition at Antwerp (see bibliography).
6. Anecdotes of Van Dyck (see "Masters in Art").

- NOVEMBER 19-26—
1. Roll-call: Quotations from the writings of Voltaire (see books on quotations, also life of Voltaire and the "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature").
  2. Brief Reports: Pictures of society in France in the time of Rousseau. Let each member consult such books as are available (see bibliography in Mathews' book).
  3. Reading: Selections from the "New Héloïse," by Rousseau.
  4. Oral Reports: Three especially significant facts from Chapter VI on the development of the Revolutionary spirit.
  5. Reading: Selections from Arthur Young's "Travels in France."
  6. Discussion: How do present-day problems affect our views of Christianity? Have we any modern Voltaires or Rousseaus, if so what ideas are they preaching? (see "Christianity and Social Problems," by Lyman Abbott; "Social Aspects of Christianity," by R. T. Ely; "Social Salvation," by Washington Gladden; "Socialism as a Rival of Organized Christianity," *North American*, 178: 915-26 (June, '04); "Primitive Christianity and Modern Socialism," *Review of Reviews*, 29: 349-50 (March, '04); "The Social Passion in Modern English Essayists," CHAUTAUQUAN, 27: 595 (Sept.,

'08); "Christianity and Socialism," CHAUTAUQUAN 30: 138.)

NOVEMBER 26-DECEMBER 3—

1. Roll-call: Quotations from books mentioned by Professor Mathews on pp. 111 and 112.
2. Review of Chapters 7, 8, and 9 by leaders.
3. Paper: Why Marie Antoinette lost favor with the French (see references in Mathews' book).
4. Readings: From Carlyle's "French Revolution," account of the Bastille or from Hazen's "American Opinion of the

French Revolution" (see paragraph in Round Table).

5. Summing up of Professor Ogg's "Afterglow of the Revolution."
6. Map Review of Waterloo.
7. Reading: Selections from Victor Hugo's description of the battle (see "Les Misérables," Chapters 65-80).
8. Discussion: Would the career of Napoleon be impossible today; if so, why? Members should bring written answers to this question and try to support their views by the best possible arguments.



## THE TRAVEL CLUB

The following programs are prepared for clubs and circles which are specializing on the travel feature of the course. Readers who have access to libraries are reminded of the "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature" which contains material relating to authors, not otherwise easily accessible. Henri Conscience and Maurice Maeterlinck, the two Belgian authors referred to in these and previous programs, will both be found in the Warner Library. A good map of Belgium can be secured from the Chautauqua Institution, Chautauqua, N. Y., for 20 cents. The bibliography in the September CHAUTAUQUAN should be consulted as well as the one accompanying this article.

### FIRST WEEK—

1. Brief Reports: Antwerp's share in the Reformation; The successive European contests on Belgian soil from 1621-1714 and their causes; Belgium under Austria; How the French opened Antwerp in 1794. (See histories of Belgium, encyclopedias and Larned's "History for Ready Reference." Also "Maison Plantin," *Lippincott's Magazine*, 30: 217.)
2. Paper or Reading: Biographical Sketch of Peter Paul Rubens (see "Masters in Art" in bibliography).
3. Roll-call: Descriptions of ten or more of Rubens' pictures (see above) also of the picture by de Vos in required article (see works on Flemish art).
4. Discussion: "The Art of Rubens." (Four members should be appointed to take up in turn the four articles under this heading in "Masters in Art" and show their application as far as possible to the photographs available.)

### SECOND WEEK—

1. Paper: What Belgium gained from Napoleon (see encyclopedias and books in bibliography).
2. Map Review: The struggle at Waterloo (see bibliography under Professor Ogg's article, page 125 of this magazine).
3. Reading: Selections from Victor Hugo's chapter on Waterloo today in "Les Misérables" or from Erckmann-Chatrian's volume on Waterloo.
4. Reading: Sketch of Anton Van Dyck (see "Masters in Art," Van Dyck).
5. Roll-call: Anecdotes of Van Dyck (see above).
6. Discussion of his style as illustrated in the pictures given in the monograph. The ten or more criticisms on pages 25-33 of the monograph should be assigned to different members who should apply them to the pictures under consideration.

7. Readings: Selections from late magazine articles commenting on the Van Dyck exhibition at Antwerp (see three magazine articles mentioned in bibliography).

### THIRD WEEK—

1. Oral reports: How Belgium has preserved her neutrality; The Leopolds; The Court and Society.
2. Map Review: The Congo Free State, showing its relation to adjoining territories.
3. Paper: The Story of the Congo Free State (see articles in bibliography, "Belgian Life in Town and Country" and other helps).
4. Roll-call: Brief reports on aspects of burgher and country life in Belgium (see "Belgian Life in Town and Country," "Belgium and the Belgians," etc.).
5. Reading: Selections from Charlotte Brontë's "Villette" and from "Where Ghosts Walk," by Marion Harland describing a recent visit to the scenes of "Villette" in Brussels. Or, discussion of "Belgian Art of Today" (see bibliography).
6. Discussion: How the suffrage in Belgium compares with our own—favorably or not? (See *North American Review*, November, 1893; *The Arena*, 31: 157-66 (Feb., '04), and references in bibliography.)

### FOURTH WEEK—

1. Paper: Maurice Maeterlinck and his work (see bibliography, also "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature").
2. Reading: Selection from "A Visit to Maeterlinck," by E. A. Steiner, *Outlook*, 69: 701.
3. Roll-call: Quotations from Maeterlinck (see "The Library Shelf").
4. Book Review: Maeterlinck's "The Life of the Bee."
5. Map Review: The cities of Belgium with respect to their present industrial progress see required article, also "Belgian Life in Town and Country" and other helps).
6. Brief reports on Belgian socialism (see article on Maison du Peuple in this magazine, "The Social Unrest," chapter XI, also "Belgian Socialism," *Outlook*, 71: 795 (Aug. 16, '02) and "The Belgian Political Situation," *Independent*, 54: 970-73 (April 24, '02), containing an account of the *Maison du Peuple*).
7. Readings: From "Transatlantic Sketches," by Henry James or "From the Lakes of Killarney to the Golden Horn," by H. M. Field.

## THE LIBRARY SHELF

### SELECTIONS FROM THE WRITINGS OF MAURICE MAETERLINCK

Be good at the depths of you, and you will discover that those who surround you will be good even to the same depths. Nothing responds more infallibly to the secret cry of goodness than the secret cry of goodness that is near. While you are actively good in the invisible, all those who approach you will unconsciously do things that they could not do by the side of any other man. Therein lies a force that has no name; a spiritual rivalry that knows no resistance. It is as though this were the actual place where is the sensitive spot of our soul: for there are souls that seem to have forgotten their existence and to have renounced everything that enables the being to rise, but, once touched there, they all draw themselves erect; and in the divine plains of the secret goodness the most humble of souls cannot endure defeat.—*The Treasure of the Humble.*

Nothing of beauty dies without having purified something, nor can aught of beauty be lost. Let us not be afraid of sowing it along the road. It may remain there for weeks or years; but like the diamond, it cannot dissolve, and finally there will pass by some one whom its glitter will attract; he will pick it up and go his way rejoicing. Then why keep back a lofty, beautiful word, for that you doubt others will understand?—*The Treasure of the Humble.*

"Even to the very wretchedest of all," said to me one day the loftiest-minded creature it has ever been my happiness to know, "even to the very wretchedest of all, I never have the courage to say anything in reply that is ugly or mediocre." I have for a long time followed this man's life, and have seen the inexplicable power he exercised over the most obscure, the most unapproachable, the blindest, even the most rebellious of souls. For no tongue can tell

the power of a soul that strives to live in an atmosphere of beauty, and is actively beautiful in itself. And indeed, is it not the quality of this activity that renders a life either miserable or divine?—*The Treasure of the Humble.*

Happiness is a plant that thrives far more readily in moral than in intellectual life. Consciousness—the consciousness of happiness, above all—will not choose the intellect as a hiding place for the treasure it holds most dear. At times it would almost seem as if all that is loftiest in intellect, fraught with most comfort, is transformed into consciousness, only when passed through an act of virtue.—*Wisdom and Destiny.*

We all live in the sublime, where else can we live? That is the only place of life. And if aught be lacking, it is not the chance of living in heaven, rather it is watchfulness and meditation, also perhaps a little ecstasy of soul. Though you have but a little room, do you fancy that God is not there too, and that it is impossible to live therein a life that shall be somewhat lofty? If you complain of being alone, of the absence of events, of loving no one and being unloved, do you think that the words are true? Do you imagine that one can possibly be alone, that love can be a thing one knows, a thing one sees; that events can be weighed like the gold and silver of ransom? Cannot a living thought—proud or humble it matters not; so it comes but from your soul, it is great for you—cannot a lofty desire, or simply a moment of solemn watchfulness to life, enter a little room? And if you love not, or are unloved and can yet see with some depth of insight that thousands of things are beautiful, that the soul is great and life almost unspeakably earnest, is not that as beautiful as though you loved or were loved?—*The Treasure of the Humble.*



## REPORTS FROM SUMMER ASSEMBLIES FOR 1904

Reports from Chautauqua Assemblies throughout the United States, show that their hold upon the people as summer magnets is less affected by temporary attractions as they establish their permanent value year after year. Fears of such a universal counter attraction as the St. Louis World's Fair and even the usual distracting conditions of a presidential year do not appear to have kept the people away from the Chautauqua Assemblies, to any great extent. The function of these assemblies as inspiring educational and sane recreational centers has been proven beyond question.

Especially notable are the anniversary celebrations such as the 25th, observed by Pacific Grove Assembly; the Chautauqua spirit which signally overcomes every obstacle which bad weather could interpose at Winfield, Kansas; the increasing observance of Recognition Day as a rallying occasion for the permanent con-

stituencies of local assembly centers, C. L. S. C. Alumni banquets and local associations and a marked revival of interest in all-the-year-around C. L. S. C. work in many parts of the country.

### CHAUTAUQUA, NEW YORK

Despite the fact that the attention of the country was occupied by the St. Louis Exposition and a presidential campaign, the attendance at the Mother Chautauqua was fully up to record making figures, and the enthusiasm as unflagging as ever. Besides the usual number of visitors coming from a distance, the surrounding country sent more than its accustomed quota, due to the better transportation facilities. A new trolley line extending from Mayville to Jamestown, in conjunction with the Chautauqua Steamboat Company, was equal to every demand of our visitors and contributed much to excursion patronage.

A disastrous fire on the seventh of July, destroying the entire business block, threatened to handicap the institution, but, through the hearty coöperation of its friends, temporary buildings were erected and plans are already made for a new and handsome structure to be built for the concessionaires.

During the sixty days of this, the thirty-first annual Assembly, the program was replete with good things, well arranged for both enlightenment and entertainment. It was an inspiration to have the presence of the beloved founder and chancellor of the institution, Bishop John H. Vincent, and the fact that his energies hereafter will be devoted almost entirely to the Chautauqua movement means a great deal.



MISS M. E. B.  
NORTON

Secretary of Pacific Coast C. L. S. C., 1881-84.

The musical side of the Assembly was progressively excellent. A large chorus under the direction of Mr. Alfred Hallam and the Band and Orchestra with H. B. Vincent as director, added much to the entertainment, as was

shown by the large audiences whenever they appeared. During the season the chorus gave most successful renditions of the oratorios of "The Messiah" and "Creation." Other musical treats were two comic operas in concert form, the children's operetta and special concerts.

On the program were many persons of prominence, chief among whom might be mentioned Hon. Wm. H. Taft, Secretary of War, who spoke on the Philippine Question.

The department of summer schools had a most satisfactory year. The total number registered was 2,479, a gain of eighteen over last year, and the largest in the history of the Assembly. The departments of English, Psychology, Pedagogy, Arts and Crafts, Music, Physical Education and Expression were the most popular, while special work, having for its center the Boys' and Girls' Clubs, was given for the children, there being 320 boys and 255 girls enrolled, respectively.

Recognition Day was fittingly observed on the seventeenth of August and nearly one hundred members of the graduating class were present at Chautauqua and marched through the Golden Gate. Special reports regarding the C. L. S. C. activities appear in pages of the C. L. S. C. Round Table in this issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Enlarged interest taken

in the C. L. S. C. exercises was but an indication of the continued growth of the C. L. S. C. Every class from the first, in 1882, was represented, besides large numbers from the undergraduate classes.

One of the striking features of the past season was the formation, August 9, of the Chautauqua Circle of the Daughters of the American Revolution with 54 charter members. The officers selected are: Mrs. Mattie B. Tucker, Louisville, Ky., president, Mrs. Alice Bradford Wiles, Chicago, Ill., vice-president, and Mrs. Robert Alexander, "The Delmar," Philadelphia, Pa., secretary and treasurer. Many of the members are prominent in the C. L. S. C. movement and this Chautauqua Circle will be a growing center of interest as the first Chautauqua organization among the patriotic orders.

The outlook for the next Chautauqua season and for the future of the Institution is very bright. Besides the planning for a new store building it is hoped that the new Hall of Philosophy will be finished before the opening of the season of 1905. Plans are perfected already for beginning the work of enclosing the Aula Christi, and with the contributions in sight it is hoped to have it finished at an early date.

#### TWENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY, PACIFIC GROVE ASSEMBLY, MONTEREY, CAL

The most notable event in the Assembly calendar this year has been the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Pacific Grove Chautauqua Assembly, near Monterey, California. This Assembly has always occupied a position of deserved prominence among affiliated Chautauquas. It was at Pacific Grove that Chancellor Vincent, in 1879, in connection with the opening exercises of that Assembly, inaugurated the C. L. S. C. on the Pacific Coast. This was one year after the organization of the C. L. S. C. at Chautauqua itself. The Pacific Grove Assembly was a peculiarly fitting place for the starting of such a movement on the coast because the men and women at the head of its affairs were recognized leaders of education in California.

In the absence of Rev. C. C. Stratton, first president of the Pacific Chautauqua, Dr. Eli McClish, President of the Assembly, delivered the sermon in Assembly Hall on 'Sunday morning, and at five o'clock in the afternoon he conducted a Vesper Service on the beach. This was the same service as that used twenty-five years ago by Bishop (then Dr.) Vincent and Joseph Cook. The attendance was very large and the service most impressive. The order of service was compiled by Mrs. E. R.

Wagner and consisted of hymns, responsive readings from the scripture and prayer. The beautiful Monterey pines and the broad Pacific formed a most picturesque background for the scene.

On Monday afternoon the exercises marking the twenty-fifth anniversary were held in Assembly Hall. Five persons who were present and helped to organize the Assembly twenty-five years ago were present at this time, Miss Norton, Mrs. Wagner, Mrs. Bentley, Mrs. Rice and Mr. Jacks.

The anniversary exercises included greetings from Chancellor Vincent, the delivering of an anniversary address and the sketch of the history of the Pacific Branch C. L. S. C., with other appropriate features.

The story of the C. L. S. C. work on the coast, was given in the form of three papers prepared by Miss Lucy M. Washburn, Miss Mary E. B. Norton and Mrs. E. J. Dawson. The history thus chronicled was a remarkable one.

The first secretary for the coast was Miss Lucy M. Washburn, who held her position for two years, when she was succeeded by Miss M. E. B. Norton, who in turn gave place to Mrs. Mary H. Field in 1884. Mrs. Field had unusual gifts as a writer and her ready pen and graceful literary style have been of great service to the C. L. S. C. Her charming little story, "The Evolution of Mrs. Thomas," first published in the Pacific Coast paper, has gone into the hands of thousands of people and this year has been reprinted in the July CHAUTAUQUAN, that it may be available for thousands more.



MISS LUCY M. WASHBURN

On Recognition Day, First Secretary of when the four members Pacific Coast C. of the class of 1904 re- L. S. C., 1879-81. ceived their diplomas, a unique feature of the exercises was the planting of a cypress tree, beneath which, in a crystal tube hermetically sealed, was placed the following inscription, "The Pacific Grove Assembly of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, on its twenty-fifth anniversary, July 19, 1904, planted this Monterey

cypress on the spot where Dr. John H. Vincent first suggested the organization of a branch of the C. L. S. C. on the Pacific Coast."

As a feature of the tree-planting ceremony, fourteen C. L. S. C. members representing classes from 1882 to 1904, each gave an appropriate quotation and threw in a shovelful of soil. The little flower girls closed the ceremony by heaping around the roots of the tree their bunches of flowers.



MRS. E. J. DAWSON  
Secretary of Pacific  
Coast Branch  
C. L. S. C. since  
1889.

The tree is supposed to be good for two thousand years, and Mrs. Dawson in sending her report of the occasion says: "If it should ever be destroyed and have to give place to the needs of a great city, and its poor roots give up the crystal tube, with what speculation would they try to decipher the mystic letters C. L. S. C. until someone wise in ancient lore will place the date and

event in the Vincent dynasty!" The decorations for the C. L. S. C. since day were of a patriotic character to emphasize the work of the "American Year" just closed. Bishop Vincent on his visit to the Pacific Grove Assembly presented them with a silk flag which he had carried through the Holy Land. Dr. McClish while presiding on Recognition Day this year told the story of the gift and unfurled the historic flag.

At five o'clock the annual Alumni Banquet was served in the Sunday School room of the church. The tickets and menu cards were silvered in honor of the twenty-fifth anniversary, and the toastmaster, Dr. Filben, introduced with happy comment one speaker after another whose reminiscences brought back vividly many historic events in the history of the Assembly. One of the most memorable incidents of the day was the tribute of appreciation paid to Dr. Filben, Mrs. E. J. Dawson and Miss M. E. B. Norton. To each was given a set of resolutions, engrossed and bound in seal and appropriately inscribed in silver.

The Pacific Grove Chautauquans closed this eventful celebration with a new appreciation of the widespread influence which they have been able to exert through these twenty-five years.

## LONG BEACH, CALIFORNIA

The nineteenth annual session of the Long Beach, California, Chautauqua Association was held from the eleventh to the twenty-third

of July. The season of 1904 was the best and most inspiring held so far. The kindest feelings are entertained towards the movement by all classes, and the daily and weekly press by favorable notices did much to bring about the success of the Assembly. Recognition Day was fittingly observed on July 18, with a class of seven. Professor George R. Crow, who has been connected with the Long Beach Assembly ever since its beginning, and is its present president, pointing to the successes of the past, looks forward to a continued growth in the future.

#### BOULDER, COLORADO

The Assembly at Boulder, Colorado, celebrated Recognition Day on the third of August, with one graduate. The address was by Mrs. Luther Goddard. The C. L. S. C. was in charge of Mrs. Percy V. Pennypacker, of Austin, Texas, and largely as a result of her work a class of thirty new members was enrolled. The Summer School, under the direction of Mr. Ira M. DeLong, was very successful, the courses on Aesthetics, Architecture and Vocal Music being the main features.

#### GLEN PARK, COLORADO

The Rocky Mountain Chautauqua at Glen Park, Colorado, was presided over by Dr. B. T. Vincent, superintendent of instruction. Under Dr. Vincent's leadership it is hoped to arouse new interest in the C. L. S. C. work. Classes were held in Sociology, Normal Work, Child Study and Christian Work, along with special evening lectures. Probably the most striking feature of the program was the series of morning institutes conducted by Prof. F. H. H. Roberts of Denver University. The maximum attendance on any one day was two hundred twenty-five. Extensive improvements were made during the season of 1903; consequently, no special additions were made during 1904.

#### CHAUTAUQUA, ILLINOIS

The twenty-first session of the Piasa Chautauqua Assembly was held from July 14 to August 10, and, while the grounds are but thirty-seven miles from the St. Louis Exposition, the gate receipts were almost the same as those for 1903.

Recognition Day was held on August 4, with Rev. J. H. Batten as the speaker, his subject being The Higher Expansion. A diploma was awarded to Miss Laura Walters of St. Louis. About twenty-five C. L. S. C. alumni and members were present. The C. L. S. C. work was directed by Mrs. Carrie L. Grout, and Round Table talks were given by her.

Many improvements were put in this sum-

mer, including a fine hotel, bathing pool, new entrance, new fleet of launches and boats, sixteen rustic bridges, new floors in the auditorium and Hall of Philosophy, enlarged pumping plant, electric light plant, and eighteen cottages. Many other cottages will be put up before the next assembly and other improvements are promised.

#### LINCOLN, ILLINOIS

The Lincoln Chautauqua has enjoyed phenomenal prosperity during the three years of its existence and is taking high rank among the western assemblies irrespective of their age or experience. The third assembly, just closed, has been a remarkably successful one, the total attendance aggregating thirty-five thousand. There were one hundred and twenty tents and about five hundred and seventy campers.

The exercises were held in the new steel auditorium, recently completed at a cost of nearly ten thousand dollars, and seating thirty-five hundred people comfortably. One of the lecturers pronounced it the finest building he had ever seen, after visiting forty assemblies.

The past season marked the inauguration of the C. L. S. C. at Lincoln, and Recognition Day was not observed. Mrs. A. E. Shipley, of Des Moines, Iowa, was in charge of the work and delivered a course of most interesting and instructive talks on literary topics. Eight readers were enrolled during the assembly and others will join later. A daily course in Bible study, which aroused considerable interest, was conducted by Rev. E. L. Parks, D. D., of Atlanta, Georgia. Among the lecturers Father T. J. Vaughan, William J. Bryan, Dr. Nancy McGee Waters, Lou J. Beauchamp, Edward Burton McDowell and H. W. Sears gave excellent satisfaction.

For next year a complete system of water-works and sewerage has been determined upon. The program will probably be strengthened by the addition of a kindergarten and several schools. The sale of one hundred and seventy lots for camping purposes insures a continued and rapid growth.

#### LITHIA SPRINGS, ILLINOIS

The fourteenth annual assembly of the Lithia Springs, Illinois, Chautauqua was held from the sixth to the twenty-third of August. The attendance was not so large as during some of the former seasons, due to the World's Fair and other assemblies in the vicinity fed by Sunday railroad excursions. However, it was the unanimous verdict that there was never a better Chautauqua session held at

Lithia Springs. The spirit of loyalty to the Chautauqua ideal was at high tide.

Recognition Day was observed on August 23. Bishop John H. Vincent gave the address and awarded diplomas to eight graduates. About forty alumni attended the Assembly, and there were about fifty additional members added to the C. L. S. C., making over two hundred readers having Lithia Springs as a center. Rev. B. W. Tyler was in charge of the C. L. S. C. Round Table and did most acceptable service. Among the talks given were those of Dr. John Quincy Adams, on Art in Daily Life; Prof. H. H. Barber, of Meadville, Pa., Divinity School, on Literature and kindred subjects; Dr. John S. Cook, on History; Rev. J. R. Van Pelt, on Bible Study; Prof. J. Ernest Woodland, on Radium and kindred subjects. The Cooking School, Physical Culture Department, Kindergarten, Biblical Studies, Scientific and Nature Studies and Literature were all in charge of skilful teachers, and were well attended. The attendance on Farmer's and Sunday School Days was nearly double this year what is had ever been before. Prof. Hopkins, of Illinois State University, and others gave valuable addresses on Farmer's Day, and the W. C. T. U. and Temperance Reform work were not neglected. Rev. Mecca Varney gave an address for the Woman's Club that was greatly appreciated.

The program on the whole this year was of rare excellence. Some of the great attractions were: Professor John W. Wetzel, of Yale University; Miss Ben Oriel, of the Holy Land; South African Boy Choir; Dr. T. Iyenega, Japanese scholar and statesman; Dr. Scott F. Hershey, of Boston; Captain Jack Crawford; and Captain R. P. Hobson. Captain Hobson's plea for foreign missions made a profound impression. Mr. Noah Beilharz's reading of the "Hoosier Schoolmaster" won great praise. The Lithia Springs orchestra and quartet gave excellent music. All the people rejoiced at the presence of Bishop Vincent and were full of praise of his address.

The outlook for the perpetuity and growth of Lithia Springs Chautauqua was never more promising. The manager, Mr. Jasper L. Douthit, reports that from promises received, the attendance during the season of 1905 will be large.

## PETERSBURG, ILLINOIS

The seventh annual Assembly of the Old Salem Chautauqua was a great success. Although but little over one hundred miles from St. Louis and, therefore, within the direct influence of the World's Fair, more people camped on the grounds than in any previous

season. Over four thousand people were the happy occupants of more than four hundred tents and seventy-five cottages which filled the Chautauqua grounds. The program was eminently satisfactory and the patrons of the many schools say it has never been excelled.

The influence of the C. L. S. C. was apparent, and twenty-one schools, mostly of a practical character, were conducted. Recognition Day was observed on next to the last day of the Assembly, August 22, with Bishop Vincent as the orator. Seven diplomas were awarded, and five graduates of former years, to whom diplomas had been sent directly, passed through the arches. Dr. George M. Brown, of Brooklyn, New York, was in charge of the C. L. S. C. work during the entire Assembly, conducting a Round Table each day and in many other ways emphasizing the movement. A C. L. S. C. Association was formed, embracing all the C. L. S. C. graduates and readers who recognize Old Salem as their Assembly home, for the purpose of continuing the C. L. S. C. propaganda throughout the year. About one hundred new readers were enrolled, but many more will be heard from a little later.

In addition to the improvements mentioned in the forecast of this Assembly in the July CHAUTAUQUAN, a \$1,500 refreshment pavilion was completed and used during the Assembly. The scheme of improvements for next year has not been worked out in all its details, but will doubtless include several new buildings.

## REMINGTON, INDIANA

The attendance at the Fountain Park Assembly at Remington, Indiana, reached twenty thousand. This was the tenth session and was better than any of the preceding. The most important educational feature was a series of sermon lectures on the Bible, given each forenoon by Rev. Medbury of Des Moines, Iowa. The assured improvements are better hotel facilities, more cottages and a better and more extended program.

## ISLAND PARK ASSEMBLY, ROME CITY, INDIANA

The twenty-sixth session of the Western Chautauqua, Island Park Assembly, at Rome City, Indiana, closed on August 12, after a most successful course of twenty-three days. The C. L. S. C. work was carried forward with earnestness and interest. Miss Catherine Harper of Goshen, Indiana, had charge of the headquarters which were open every day of the session. The books of the C. L. S. C. were exhibited and explained, the people were urged to take up the course and much interest was aroused along reading circle lines. Recogni-



tion Day, July 29, was one of the good dates of the Assembly. Dr. Wilbur L. Davidson of Washington, D. C., had charge of the exercises. Over forty readers and alumni were in line. Dr. Davidson made an able address in outlining the Reading Course work and was followed by Dr. W. H. Hickman, president of the Board of Trustees of Chautauqua Institution, in the address of the afternoon on "Home Education." His usual platform ability was manifested.

Lectures along educational lines during the session were by Dr. Colledge, Dr. Samuel Seluba, Dr. A. W. Lamar, Dr. Joseph Mauck, Hillsdale College, Dr. C. W. Winchester, Taylor University, Dr. W. L. Davidson, American University, Dr. Robert Kelley, Earlham College, and Dr. George Wood Anderson, Troy, N. Y. Training school classes in elocution, physical culture and science were under the Assembly W. C. T. U. The attendance was up to the record of former years, with bright promises for 1905. The former Executive Board continues in control with J. F. Snyder, of La Grange, Indiana, as Field Manager, and Dr. W. L. Davidson, Superintendent of Platform.

#### ALLERTON, IOWA

The Chautauqua Assembly at Allerton, Iowa, this season was considered by the managers as one of the most successful ever held at this place. The average attendance was about two thousand. The Assembly was a financial success and there is strong talk of buying grounds and building a permanent tabernacle. Heretofore the grounds have been leased and a large tent used as an Assembly Hall.

The C. L. S. C. work this year was under the management of Miss Inez F. Kelso of Corydon, Iowa. A program was prepared by local talent of papers, talks and music along lines of thought that have to do with the next year's C. L. S. C. Reading Course. Much interest was manifested in these programs and good audiences greeted the speakers each day at 9:30 a. m., the C. L. S. C. hour. A Recognition Day was planned but not carried out because of the sickness of some of the people who were to take part in it. But plans are already projected for a grand Recognition Day for next year. There is a large class for 1905 at Allerton with several members in other places in the vicinity who want to take part in the ceremony. Prospects for enrolment in the Class of 1908 are encouraging.

#### CLARINDA, IOWA

The Clarinda, Iowa, Chautauqua Assembly was a marked success. A new feature was the C. L. S. C. Round Table work, planned by

Dr. Clara B. Willis, the local Chautauqua representative, assisted by Miss Mary Berry. Owing, however, to the enforced absence of Dr. Willis by reason of illness the program had to be looked after by substitutes who were forthcoming in the persons of Mrs. Dill, Mrs. Tunnecliffe, Miss Berry, Miss Rhoda Knox and Miss Jessie Godfrey, the latter having charge of the C. L. S. C. headquarters, answering questions, etc. The Round Table speakers were Prof. W. E. Salsbury on Geographical Influences in History; Rev. J. N. MacLane on Browning's "The Ring and the Book"; Rev. J. F. Horne The Minstrel and the Troubadour, a Study in Sources and Origin of Literature; and Miss Frances Norris on European Travels. Besides these, former and present readers of the C. L. S. C. read short papers and gave talks. The Round Tables were well received and interest in general Chautauqua work was aroused by it. All the present readers will continue the course and several new ones will be added.

Recognition Day was celebrated on August 17, with an address by Dr. George L. Robinson of Chicago University on The Bible and Modern Discoveries. It was an able address by an able man. The important educational features of the program were the Bible lectures by Dr. Robinson, the address by Dr. Toyokichi Iyenaga on The Russo-Japanese Struggle, and the literary lectures by Leon Vincent on Emerson, Lowell, Hawthorne, Carlyle and other writers.

This was the eighth and best season of the Assembly. It was the unanimous voice of those who were present and know what was done to have the good work go on. Financially, the season was a success and with the improvements already made, it is the intention to raise the standard of the future.

#### FORT DODGE, IOWA

The Ft. Dodge, Iowa, Assembly of sixteen days had a very large attendance, more than two thousand being present daily. The fact that the grounds are some distance outside the city prevented any attempt to hold forenoon sessions. The C. L. S. C. work was in charge of Mrs. F. Harmon, Mrs. Mosier and J. F. Monk and considerable literature was distributed with good results.

This being only the second year of the assembly, no diplomas were awarded. However, Recognition Day was fittingly observed and about one hundred members and Alumni of the C. L. S. C. listened to Dr. R. S. MacArthur, who spoke on "Russia, the Great Bear."

Among the contemplated improvements is a new auditorium which will probably be built in

the spring. The glowing prospects of the Assembly amply justify this.

#### WATERLOO, IOWA

The Waterloo, Iowa, Assembly finished its most successful session this season. The grounds and surroundings are most attractive, and this, combined with the superior excellence of the entertainment, brought out a large attendance. Much interest was shown in the C. L. S. C. work and many new readers were added. Recognition Day, however, was not observed, as only two of the 1904 graduates were present.

#### CAWKER CITY, KANSAS

The Lincoln Park Chautauqua at Cawker City, Kansas, held its third annual assembly from the twenty-first to the thirty-first of July. About two hundred tents were occupied by families, clubs or societies, and large audiences were present to enjoy the splendid program.

The C. L. S. C. work was in charge of Miss Meddie Hamilton, of Wichita, and the Round Table meetings aroused much interest and a large list of readers was enrolled. Several clubs in the vicinity are quite active in the work. While retaining their club names, they find the Chautauqua courses to be most admirably adapted to their needs.

During this session one hundred and eighteen leases of lots at fifty dollars each were made and many permanent improvements are planned for next year.

#### WINFIELD, KANSAS

The eighteenth annual assembly of the Winfield, Kansas, Chautauqua, was to have been held at Island Park, beginning June 14, but on account of heavy floods and continuous rains, it was postponed until June 28. The result was that the program had to be re-made, and much additional expense incurred. On the twenty-eighth with the opening exercises came rain, which continued during the whole session, overflowing the grounds and driving everyone to Winfield, where accommodations were provided by the citizens. The opera house was utilized for the afternoon and night lectures, and the various classes and departments were held in the churches, and what had threatened to be a disastrous session, ended triumphantly on the evening of July 8.

The various eschools did good work. The Department of Literature and that of Sacred Literature were well attended. A Boy's Club, a

Girls' Club and a Model Kindergarten were among the attractive features. The Woman's Associated Clubs in their fine new quarters attracted much attention. The dedication services were held on July 6 and the grand rally at the tabernacle proved a climax of the session.

The C. L. S. C., while handicapped by the change in the date, did good work. Mrs. Piatt, who has had charge of the work for the past seven years, was able to be present but two days. However, Miss Hamilton was fully equal to the task. Twenty-seven diplomas were awarded, eleven of the recipients being present. The Recognition services were well attended and were ended with a reception in which all joined.

The future looks bright. The C. L. S. C. has a firm hold on Winfield. The citizens have rallied both morally and financially to the support of the Chautauqua movement, and its influence promises to extend every year.

#### MONTWAIT, MASS.

The New England Chautauqua held a most successful Assembly at Montwait, Mass., closing its session on the twenty-second of July. Recognition Day was celebrated with due pomp, the address being given by Bishop John H. Vincent, George H. Clark, superintendent of instruction, presenting the dipomas.

#### WASHINGTON GROVE, MARYLAND

Recognition Day was observed by the Washington Grove, Maryland, Assembly by the presentation of four diplomas. Rev. E. W. Morton made the address, his subject being The Chautauqua Movement.

This was the third season for Washington Grove, and the attendance and interest were encouraging. Among the speakers were Prof. Charles S. Smith, who spoke on Causes of the French Revolution; Dr. D. E. Wiber, Pasteur and his Influence upon Scientific Progress; T. H. Tibbits, The Suez and Panama Canals; Prof. Gustave Bender, German Music; Miss Frank Miller, Italian Immigrants; and W. H. H. Smith, Review of Dr. Black's Chautauqua Lectures on Mind and Heart Culture.

A very successful Art Class and a Kindergarten taught by Miss Morgan, were among the educational features.

As to the future, plans are in contemplation for the erection of a tabernacle to seat about twelve hundred.

*(To be continued in November.)*

# C. L. S. C. Class Directory 1882-1908

## UNDERGRADUATE CLASSES

### CLASS OF 1908—"TENNYSON."

*"To strive, to seek, to find, and not to yield."*

President—Dr. W. H. Hickman, Jamestown, N. Y.

Vice-presidents—Mrs. C. H. Abbott, Winterpark, Fla.; Rev. S. F. Willis, New York City; Señorita Maria del Pilar Zamora, Manila, P. I.; Prof. S. C. Schmucker, West Chester, Pa.; George W. Downing, Binghamton, N. Y.; Mrs. T. H. Loller, Denison, O.; Mrs. Mary M. T. Runnels, Nipino, Cal.; Miss Millicent E. Stone, Toronto, Canada; Mrs. Joseph Burton Dibrell, Segum, Tex.

Secretary—Miss Sarah E. Ford, Deposit, N. Y.

Treasurer and Trustee—Conrad V. Murphree, Gadsden, Ala.

Class Flower—The Red Rose.

### CLASS OF 1907—"GEORGE WASHINGTON."

*"The aim of education is character."*

President—Professor G. D. Kellogg, Williamstown, Mass.

Vice-presidents—Mr. S. M. Cooper, Cincinnati, O.; Mr. Edward F. Bigelow, *St. Nicholas Magazine*, New York City; Miss Guillermina, Gonzalez, Porto Rico; Mr. L. H. Bowman, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. J. C. B. Stivers, Cleveland, O.; Mrs. W. K. Pendleton, Eustis, Fla.; Miss Margaret H. McPherson, Baltimore, Md.; Rev. L. G. Knight, Grand Junction, Colo.; Miss Grace Hunt, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Charles B. Foster, Caloossee, Fla.

Treasurer—Mr. E. N. Transeau, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Secretary—Mrs. A. B. Avery, Shreveport, La.

Class Flower—The Cardinal Flower.

## GRADUATE CLASSES

### CLASS OF 1904—"LEWIS MILLER."

*"The horizon widens as we climb."*

President—Francis Wilson, New Rochelle, N. Y.

Honorary Members—Mrs. Lewis Miller, Akron, O.; Mr. Richard Burton, Boston, Mass.

First Vice-president—Mrs. Helen Bullock, Elmira, N. Y.

Vice-presidents—Mrs. L. L. Burke, Philadelphia, Pa.; Mr. Scott Brown, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. T. Chapman, Selma, Ala.; Mrs. Mary Hutchins Cozzens, Cleveland, O.; Mr. J. B. Pace, Bowling Green, Ky.; Mr. R. M. Jackson, Upland, Neb.; Mrs. E. M. Robinson, Kansas City, Mo.; Mr. T. H. Landon, Bordentown, N. J.; Mrs. C. H. Vernon, Brownwood, Tex.; Lieutenant John D. Rogers, Devonport, England; Mrs. Carl Zinnsmeister, Nashville, Tenn.

Treasurer—Mrs. Josie E. House, 1230 Amsterdam Ave., New York City.

Secretary—Miss Charlotte Howard, Philadelphia, Pa.

Historian—Mrs. M. K. Walker, Wellsville, O.

Class Flower—Clematis.

### CLASS OF 1906—"JOHN RUSKIN."

*"To love light and seek knowledge must be always right."*

President—Bishop W. F. Oldham, India.

Acting President—Mr. Carlton Hillyer, Augusta, Ga.

Honorary Member—Edward Howard Griggs, Montclair, New Jersey.

Vice-presidents—H. L. Sawyer, Springfield, O.; Mrs. Josephine E. Heermans, Kansas City, Mo.; E. S. Knowles, Ensley, Ala.; H. W. Morton, Sandusky, O.; Miss Hattie E. Todd, Topsfield, Mass.; Miss Cora C. Staples, Emlenton, Pa.; Miss Sara G. Stokes, Augusta, Ga.; Mrs. Helen M. Briggs, New York City.

Secretary—Miss S. A. Green, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Class pins can be secured from Mrs. Charles H. Russell, 216 18th St., Toledo, O.

Treasurer and Trustee—Mrs. A. B. Allen, Oberlin, O.

Class Flower—The Lily.

### CLASS OF 1905—"THE COSMOPOLITANS."

*Class Poet—Robert Browning.*

*"A man's reach should exceed his grasp."*

President—Dr. J. A. Babbitt, Haverford, Pa.

Vice-presidents—Mr. C. D. Firestone, Columbus, O.; Miss Mary K. Bissell, Cincinnati, O.; Dr. Russell M. Warren, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mr. George Wharton James, Pasadena, Cal.; Christina I. Tingling, London, England; Mrs. Richard Patten, Cardenas, Cuba; Miss Ailene V. Belden, New Orleans, La.; Miss Elizabeth L. Foote, New York City; Miss Anne M. Heileman, Greeley, Colo.; Miss Sadie Goss, Stony Point, Va.

Secretary—Miss Eleanor McCready, 614 Auburn Ave., Buffalo, N. Y.

Treasurer and Trustee—Dr. R. M. Warren.

Class Flower—Cosmos.

### CLASS OF 1903—"QUARTER-CENTURY CLASS."

*"What is excellent is permanent."*

President—Mrs. Alice M. Hemenway, Edgewood, R. I.

Vice-presidents—Mr. F. C. Bray, Chicago; Mrs. G. N. Luccock, Oak Park, Ill.; Mr. Clem. Studebaker, South Bend, Ind.; Mrs. W. E. Magill, Erie, Pa.; Mrs. F. W. Trumper, Cleveland; Mr. Herbert Spencer, Canandaigua, N. Y.; Mrs. K. P. Snyder, Kansas City, Kan.; Miss Bell Peacock, Ft. Worth, Texas; Mr. E. Lownsbury, Brookton, N. Y.

Treasurer and Trustee—Mr. J. W. Clark, New Castle, Pa.

Secretary—Mrs. J. J. Covert, Pittsburg, Pa.

Class Flower—Cornflower.

Class Emblem—Three ears of corn (red, white and blue).

### CLASS OF 1902—"THE ALTRURIANS."

*"Not for self, but for all."*

President—Mrs. Carlton Hillyer, Augusta, Ga.

Vice-president—Dr. G. N. Luccock, Oak Park, Ill.; Dr. E. L. Warren, Louisville, Ky.; Mrs. Josephine Braman, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mr. A. T. Van Laer, New York, N. Y.; Miss H. M. Brown, St. Louis, Mo.; Mrs. Norton, Chicago, Ill.; Mr. C. M. Stoddard, Plattsburg, Ill.; Mrs. Mulletts, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. F. M. Keefe, Waltham, Mass.; Mrs. E. H. Baumgaertner, Decatur, Texas; Mrs. E. D. Hale, Niles, Cal.; Mr. Jesse Smith, Titusville, Pa.

Secretary—Mrs. Belle Richards, Oil City, Pa.

Treasurer and Trustee—Miss Julia Parker, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Class Flower—Golden Glow.

#### CLASS OF 1901.—“THE TWENTIETH CENTURY.”

*“Light, Love, Life.”*

President—Dr. William Seaman Bainbridge, New York City.

Vice-presidents—Mrs. Samuel George, Wells-ville, W. Va.; Mrs. Helen Irwin Savage, Churchville, N. Y.; Miss Clara Mathews, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss F. A. P. Spurway, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Dr. B. F. Miesse, Chillicothe, O.; Miss Caroline Leech, Louisville, Ky.; Miss Elizabeth Stewart, Orange, N. J.; Mrs. Elizabeth Stockton, Williamsburg, O.; Miss Margaret A. Hackley, Georgetown, Ky.

Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. Marcus W. Jamieson, Warren, Pa.

Trustee—Mrs. Helen Irwin Savage, Churchville, N. Y.

Class Flower—Coreopsis.

Class Emblem—The Palm.

#### CLASS OF 1900.—“THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.”

*“Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor.” “Licht, Liebe, Leben.”*

President—Dr. N. I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

Vice-presidents—Jas. B. Scott, Baltimore, Md.; Mrs. Elizabeth Bashinsky, Troy, Ala.; Miss Bessie Arnold, St. Louis, Mo.; Mrs. G. C. Nelson, Chico, Cal.; Rev. John A. McKamy, Nashville, Tenn.; Miss Catherine Arnott Taylor, Wickliffe, O.; Mrs. Hannah Shurr, El Paso, Ill.; Miss Mary Furman, Shreveport, La.; Mrs. Emeline Smith, Rowayton Conn.; Mrs. Wm. J. Ritchey, Pittsburg, Pa.

Secretary and Treasurer—Miss Mabel Campbell, Cohoes, N. Y.

Trustee—J. Franklin Hunt, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Financial Committee—Mrs. J. Preston Hall, Fredonia, N. Y.; Miss Mary Jameson, Cohoes, N. Y.; Rev. Smith Orday, Sodus, N. Y.

Class Flower—The Pine.

#### CLASS OF 1899.—“THE PATRIOTS.”

*“Fidelity, Fraternity.”*

President—Capt. J. A. Travis, 1008 E. Capitol St., Washington, D. C.

Vice-presidents—Mr. W. J. Ford, Hiram, O.; Capt. P. W. Bemis, Westfield, N. Y.; Mrs. C. D. Barbee, St. Louis, Mo.; Mrs. S. R. Strong, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mr. John C. Martin, New York City.

Secretary—Mrs. W. D. Barnard, 54 Belvedere Ave., Cleveland, O.

Treasurer—Miss C. E. Parsons, Albion, O.

Trustee—Mrs. J. V. Ritts, Butler, Pa.

Class Flower—The Fern.

Class Emblem—The Flag.

#### CLASS OF 1898.—“THE LANIERS.”

*“The humblest life that lives may be divine.”*

President—Mrs. A. R. Halsted, South Orange, N. J.

Vice-presidents—Miss Mary H. Askew Mather, Wilmington, Del.; Rev. Robert P. Gibson, Croton Falls, N. Y.; Mr. W. P. Speakman, Pittsburg, Pa.; Miss Ella Scofield, Warren, Pa.; Mrs. Frank T. Wray, Apollo, Pa.; Mrs. Isabella M. Hazeltine, Warren, Pa.

Secretary—Miss Ella A. Stowell, Portland, N. Y.

Treasurer and Trustee—Miss Fannie B. Collins, Grand View, O.

Class Flower—Violet.

#### CLASS OF 1897.—“THE ROMANS.”

*“Veni, Vidi, Vici.”*

President—Rev. W. P. Varner, Allenport, Pa.

Vice-presidents—E. P. Mackie, New Orleans, La.; W. H. Blanchard, Westminster, Vt.; Mrs. E. P. Crumb, St. Louis, Mo.; Mrs. J. W. Doubleday, Jamestown, N. Y.; Mrs. A. E. Barber, Bethel, Conn.; Mrs. A. P. Cosgrove, Pilot Point, Texas; Miss Carrie B. Runyon, Plainfield, N. J.

Treasurer and Trustee—Mrs. J. W. Doubleday, Jamestown, N. Y.

Secretary—Miss Eva Maynard Martin, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Class Emblem—Ivy.

#### CLASS OF 1896.—“THE TRUTH SEEKERS.”

*“Truth is eternal.”*

President—John A. Seaton, Cleveland, O.

Vice-presidents—Miss Sarah E. Briggs, New Haven, Conn.; Mrs. Cynthia A. Butler, Pittsfield, Ill.; Mrs. Annie J. Emery, Wellsburg, W. Va.; Mrs. J. D. Hamilton, Coraopolis, Pa.; Miss Irene D. Gallaway, Fayetteville, Ark.; Mrs. Mary L. Ray, Warren, Ind.; Mrs. Selah Brown, Fostoria, O.; Miss Hattie Shuster, Shreveport, La.; Miss May Stansbury, Los Angeles, Cal.; Dr. Wm. C. Bower, Lebanon, Kan.

Recording Secretary—Miss Emily North, Pittsburg, Pa.

Corresponding Secretary—Mrs. J. D. Hamilton, Coraopolis, Pa.

Treasurer—J. R. Conner, Franklin, Pa.

Historian—George H. Lincks, Jersey City, N. J.

Scribe—Henry W. Sadd, Wapping, Conn.

Orator—Rev. George W. Peck, Buffalo, N. Y.

Class Flower—Forget-me-not.

Emblem—Greek Lamp.

#### CLASS OF 1895.—“THE PATHFINDERS.”

*“The truth shall make you free.”*

President—Mr. Robert A. Miller, Ponce, Porto Rico.

Vice-presidents—Mrs. George P. Hukill, Oil City, Pa.; Mrs. Robert A. Miller, Ponce, Porto Rico; Mrs. E. H. Peters, Newark, N. J.; Mrs. F. B. Sawvel, Greenville, Pa.

Secretary—Miss C. Lawrence, Brooklyn, N. Y.  
 Treasurer—Miss F. M. Hazen, Chautauqua, N. Y.  
 Trustee—Dr. Wilbur F. Crafts, Washington, D. C.  
 Class Flower—Nasturtium.

CLASS OF 1894.—"THE PHILOMATHEANS."

*"Ubi mel, ibi apes."*

President—Rev. A. C. Ellis, D. D., Erie, Pa.  
 Vice-presidents—Rev. D. A. Cunningham, D. D., Wheeling, W. Va.; Rev. J. B. Countryman, Gowanda, N. Y.; Mrs. J. W. Ralston, Danville, Ill.

Secretary and Treasurer—Miss Anna M. Thomson, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Trustee—Rev. D. A. Cunningham, D. D., Wheeling, W. Va.

Class Flower—Clover.

CLASS OF 1893.—"THE ATHENIANS."

*"Study to be what you wish to seem."*

President—Rev. M. D. Lichliter, Harrisburg, Pa.

Vice-presidents—Prof. G. E. Vincent, Chicago, Ill.; Rev. J. K. Adams, Hazen, Pa.; Mrs. Mary B. Ashton, Hamilton, O.; Mr. W. H. Scott, Syracuse, N. Y.; Rev. Chas. Thayer, D. D., LL. D., Minneapolis, Minn.; Mrs. Charlotte B. Green, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mr. W. H. Coonrod, Port Jervis, N. Y.; Mrs. Alma F. Piatt, Wichita, Kan.

Secretary—Mrs. A. R. Silvers, Belfast, N. Y.  
 Treasurer—Mrs. Julia H. Thayer, Sherman, N. Y.

Class Trustee—Professor T. H. Paden, New Concord, O.

Class Emblem—Acorn.

CLASS OF 1892.—"THE COLUMBIANS."

*"Seek and ye shall find."*

President—Mrs. Eloise L. Cotton, Griggsville, Ill.

First Vice-president—Mrs. T. E. McCray, Bradford, Pa.

Second Vice-president—Miss M. E. F. Eaton, Southport, Conn.

District Vice-presidents—Mrs. J. H. Vincent, Indianapolis; Mrs. J. L. Hurlbut, South Orange, N. J.; Mrs. G. E. W. Young, Adams, N. Y.; Mrs. J. H. Fryer, Galt, Canada; Miss Maud Hoxsie, Knoxville, Tenn.; Mrs. Frank Beard, Chicago, Ill.; Miss Grace Sherwood, Jefferson, O.; Mrs. Louise M. Beardsley, Derby, Conn.

Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. Lillian B. Clarke, Andover, N. Y.

Trustee—Rev. Thomas Cardis, Leroy, N. Y.  
 Class Flower—Carnation.

CLASS OF 1891.—"THE OLYMPIANS."

*"So run that ye may obtain."*

President—Dr. H. R. Palmer, New York City.

Vice-presidents—Mrs. L. E. Hawley, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. George Guernsey, Independence, Kan.; Mrs. C. W. Sersall, Warren, Pa.; Mrs. H. B. Shaw, Ormond, Fla.; Mr. Joseph Fryer, Galt, Canada; Rev. Edward G.

Laughry, Uniontown, Pa.; Mrs. A. N. Ebaugh, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Rev. J. M. Durrell, Tilton, N. H.; Mrs. Sarah M. Steele, Oakland, Cal.; Mrs. R. P. Murdock, Wichita, Kan.

Secretary—Mrs. Wm. Breeden, Jamestown, N. Y.

Corresponding Secretary—Mrs. George Guernsey, Independence, Kan.

Treasurer and Trustee—Mr. W. H. Westcott, Holley, N. Y.

Historian—Miss M. A. Daniels, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Class Flower—Laurel and white rose.

CLASS OF 1890.—"THE PIERIANS."

*"Redeeming the time."*

President—Rev. D. A. McClenahan, Allegheny, Pa.

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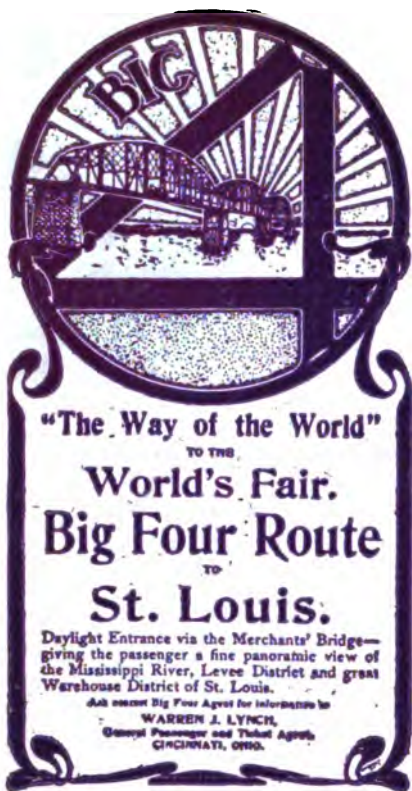
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*A Magazine of  
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# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

A Monthly Magazine of Things Worth While

Official Publication of Chautauqua Institutions

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MAY 3, 1879.





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Showing Rathaus (left), Templar House, Roland Fountain and Wedekind Haus.

# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

VOL. XL.

NOVEMBER, 1904

No. 3.



WHEN these lines reach the readers of this magazine the presidential campaign of 1904 will practically have passed into history. It has been, up to this writing at any rate, a most peculiar campaign. The "apathy" to which we referred last month, has not ceased since, and for the best of reasons. The indifference of the voters has been "a household topic" throughout the country. The Republican speakers have been saying that this means, simply, that the Democratic search or hunt for issues has failed; the Democrats retort that there is little enthusiasm for or interest in the cause of the dominant party. Impartial observers hold that the apathy is more hurtful to the opposition than to the administration, appealing for a vote of confidence and another lease of official life.

The letters of acceptance of the respective presidential candidates, though quite unusual (each in a different way), did nothing to enliven the canvass. President Roosevelt's very elaborate statement was a defense of the Republican position, an expression of complete satisfaction with the *status quo* and an aggressive challenge to the Democrats. The Republicans, declared Mr. Roosevelt, have done nothing which could be reversed without detriment and disaster to the country. This, he claimed, was true as a whole and as to every separate act or policy of that party. On the tariff, reciprocity, trusts, Philippine and foreign-affairs issues, the Republicans have kept their promises while refraining from making promises

that they were not sure they would be able to keep. He charged the opposition with insincerity on several issues, notably the tariff and trust questions.

Ex-Judge Parker's letter was comparatively brief and but little more militant than his previous utterance, in the form of a speech to the notification committee. It formulates the issue of the campaign as follows: Wasteful expenditures vs. economical administration, government by caprice vs. constitutional government, spectacular and brilliant adventures vs. a dignified foreign policy, and reasonable tariff revision plus McKinley reciprocity vs. the high protection embodied in the Dingley tariff act.

The Democratic candidate also attacks the pension order of the executive—applying an act in relation to Mexican war veterans to Civil war veterans—as an unwarranted and illegal act, and promises to revoke it in the event of his election; adding, however, that he is in favor of a law granting pensions on account of age to all veterans of the Civil war.

In relation to trusts, Judge Parker asserts that no further legislation by Congress is necessary, since, under a decision by the Supreme Court the federal judiciary may apply the common law to all monopoly cases coming before them. At the same time he is prepared to advance new legislation should experience demonstrate the necessity therefor.

The "apathy" of the campaign has its compensations. If there has been no exciting discussion of the issues, there has also been a gratifying lack of personal

abuse and vituperation. The offenders have been few, and they failed to enlist public interest in their tirades.

Few Democrats of distinction have "bolted" their party



FRANK W. HIGGINS  
Republican candi-  
date for Govern-  
or of New  
York.

nominations, and few Republicans have gone over to the Democratic camp. In a general way, it may be said that the alignment is practically what it was in 1892. The majority of anti-silver Democrats have returned to their party, the financial question being completely eliminated from the contest. The Democrats originally

expected to attract thousands of Republican voters in each of the "pivotal" states—New York, New Jersey, Indiana, West Virginia, etc.—but their success or failure in this direction will not be known until the ballots are actually counted on the night of November 8. At this writing neither party is making sweeping claims, the number of doubtful states being admittedly larger than in the national elections of 1900 and 1896.



## Expenditures and the "Extravagance" Issue

All through the presidential campaign the Democrats have sought persistently to make a political issue of the rising tide of governmental expenditures. The present administration has been charged with reckless extravagance and contempt for economy. Judge Parker, ex-Senator Davis and leading speakers have dwelt on the subject with so much earnestness that the Republican chiefs have been moved to demand what the lawyers call "a bill of particulars." Judge Parker compared the

appropriations under Cleveland with those of recent years and found sinister significance in the increase of the total from less than \$268,000,000 in 1888 to \$582,000,000 in 1902.

The figures from the years 1880 to 1904, according to official reports, are given in the following table, interesting wholly apart from partisan treatment of it:

Year	Population	Net expenses	Per capita expenses
1880....	50,155,783	\$267,642,958 00	\$5.34
1881....	51,316,000	260,712,888 00	5.08
1882....	52,495,000	257,981,440 00	4.91
1883....	53,693,000	265,408,138 00	4.94
1884....	54,911,000	244,126,244 00	4.44
1885....	56,148,000	260,226,935 00	4.63
1886....	57,404,000	242,483,138 00	4.22
1887....	58,680,000	267,932,179 00	4.56
1888....	59,974,000	267,924,801 00	4.46
1889....	61,289,000	299,288,978 00	4.88
1890....	62,622,250	318,040,710 00	5.07
1891....	63,947,000	365,773,905 35	5.72
1892....	65,191,000	345,023,330 58	5.29
1893....	66,456,000	383,477,954 49	5.77
1894....	67,740,000	367,525,279 83	5.43
1895....	69,043,000	356,195,298 29	5.16
1896....	70,365,000	352,179,446 08	5.01
1897....	71,704,000	365,774,159 57	5.10
1898....	73,060,000	443,368,582 80	6.07
1899....	73,433,000	605,072,179 85	8.14
1900....	76,295,220	487,713,791 71	6.39
1901....	77,754,000	509,967,353 15	6.56
1902....	79,117,000	471,190,857 64	5.90
1903....	80,847,000	506,099,007 04	6.26
1904....	*81,867,000	582,569,086 06	7.14

\*Population estimated.

†This includes \$8,270,842.46 of "premiums on purchase of bonds."

‡This includes \$17,292,362.65 of "premiums on purchase of bonds."

§This includes \$20,304,224.06 of "premiums on purchase of bonds."

|| This includes \$10,401,220.61 of "premiums on purchase of bonds."

|| This includes \$50,000,000 for the Panama Canal.

The growth of population, it is said, will account, in a measure, for the steady increase of the total of annual expenditures, but it does not account for the per capita increase. The real explanation is—carelessness, extravagance, according to the Democrats. The New York *Evening Post*, a strong Parker advocate, says: "The money is leaking out through a thousand holes, a few dollars here, a few millions there, in every department of government. The whole machine is run loosely and lavishly."

The Republicans have not only denied this charge, but have challenged their op-

ponents to show just where they could save, retrench and economize. They insist that the expenditures are unavoidably heavy and due to the multiplying needs and interests of the country. In his letter of acceptance the President meets the Democratic indictment in these words:

Do our opponents grudge the fifty millions paid for the Panama canal?

Do they intend to cut down on the pensions to the veterans of the Civil War?

Do they intend to put a stop to the irrigation policy, or to the permanent census bureau, or to immigration inspection?

Do they intend to abolish rural free delivery? Do they intend to cut down the navy, or the Alaskan telegraph system?

Do they intend to dismantle our coast fortifications?

If there is to be a real and substantial cutting down of national expenditures it must be in such matters as these. The department of agriculture has done service of incalculable value to the farmers of this country in many different lines. Do our opponents wish to cut down the money for this service? They can do it only by destroying the usefulness of the service itself.

Whichever party wins, the question of expenditure is one which every thoughtful citizen would like to see considered by Congress, and especially by the House, which makes the appropriations—theoretically at least—on its merits and in the right and proper spirit.

## Campaign of the "Minor" Parties

When the Populists held their convention and nominated Mr. Watson for President, Populism was generally pronounced dead. In fact, surprise was expressed that the leaders of the party should take the trouble to place a ticket in the field. Many of the Populists had returned to the Republican fold and declared that the party's *raison d'être* had vanished.

It is generally agreed now that Mr. Watson has put new life into Populism. He has made a picturesque and vigorous campaign and it is asserted by his followers that many of the former Bryan Democrats will vote the Populist ticket on November 8.

Mr. Watson, naturally enough, assails both the Republican and the Democratic candidates. Both parties, he says, are plutocratic and optimistic and insincere.

Neither represents any vital or honest issue, in his opinion, and the hope of the country lies in Populism. Here is a quotation from a speech of his at Atlanta which attracted much comment:

Party names to me are nothing. The doctrine is everything. I call upon all Jeffersonian Democrats to help me make this fight against the two republican parties, headed by Roosevelt and Parker. What do we need of two parties committed to Wall Street? Let us have one for the people.

If I could become politically tipsy enough to vote for Parker, on the platform of 1904, as constructed by Parker himself. I would take one more drink—a



JUDGE D-CADY HERICK  
Democratic candidate for Governor of New York.



In 1896 and 1900

and 1904

THE CAMPAIGN ORATOR

—From the Cleveland Plain Dealer.

small one at that—and vote for the other twin, Roosevelt. Give me the original every time, rather than the blurred, indistinct, imitative.

Mr. Watson has dealt very pointedly with the race issue. He has framed certain questions which, he says, Mr. Parker ought to answer explicitly. They follow:

How does he stand upon this alleged question? Is his position at all different from that of Roosevelt? If so, in what respect? The south should demand explicit reply to the following questions before it votes for him upon the assumption that he differs from Roosevelt on the negro question:

1. Would you refuse to eat at the same table with Booker Washington?

2. Would you refuse to appoint negroes to office in the south?

3. If elected will you refuse to receive on terms of equality at the White House such negroes as Bishop Turner, Booker Washington, and T. Thomas Fortune?

4. Do you approve the mixed schools of New York, inaugurated under Grover Cleveland—in which social equality is practically made a matter of compulsion?

5. If such schools—wherein black children and white children are educated together—are a good thing for your native state of New York, would they be a good thing for Georgia and South Carolina? If not, Why not?

The Prohibitionists are not so aggressive as the Populists, but they, too, claim that dissatisfaction with the older parties will bring them thousands of votes. The Socialists expect to make heavy gains, owing to the restrictions in several important industries.



### War and Peace Conferences

The Interparliamentary Union, a body composed of members of European, old-world and new-world parliaments, held its session last month at St. Louis. This association was organized in 1888 in Paris by members of the French Chamber of Deputies and of the British Parliament. Its sole purpose is the promotion of peace and international arbitration. It has met in the great capitals of the world, and one

of its sessions was attended by a personal representative of the Tzar. An American branch of the union was formed last year. The St. Louis conference was attended by three hundred delegates. The conference adopted, after earnest discussion, two important resolutions—one for friendly mediation between Russia and Japan, and one for another meeting of The Hague international conference. The former requests the powers to intervene either jointly or separately with the belligerents to facilitate the restoration of peace: this, of course, will not bear any fruit. Intervention is not desired and would be unceremoniously declined. The latter resolution is more practical and may be set forth in full:

Whereas, Enlightened public opinion and the spirit of modern civilization alike demand that differences between nations should be adjusted and settled in the same manner as disputes between individuals are adjudicated—namely, by the arbitration of courts in accordance with recognized principles of law;

The conference requests the several governments of the world to send representatives to an annual conference to be held at a time and place to be agreed upon by them, for the purpose of considering:

1. The questions for the consideration of which the conference at The Hague expressed a wish that a future conference be called.



AN ECLIPSE IN SIGHT

—From the Minneapolis Journal.



2. The negotiation of arbitration treaties between the nations represented at the conference to be convened.

3. The advisability of establishing an international congress to convene periodically for the discussion of international questions.

And this conference respectfully requests the President of the United States to invite all the nations to send representatives to such a conference.

The power of an American chief executive to issue such a call may be doubted. The difficulty, however, has been foreseen. A bill which originated with the American branch of the Inter-parliamentary Union is now pending in our Congress. It authorizes the President to issue invitations for a conference of the powers "to devise plans looking to the negotiation of arbitration treaties," and also "to discuss the advisability of and if possible agree upon, a gradual reduction of armaments."

In the present state of the world it may well seem an idle, quixotic and thankless task to make peace appeals and pass arbitration resolutions; but serious economists and social philosophers believe that war itself is the most potent argument for peace and that the terrible conflict in Manchuria cannot fail to accelerate the movement of the thoughtful opponents of militarism and crushing taxation for the adoption of civilized methods of settling controversies between nations. President Roosevelt has agreed to issue a call for another peace conference.

At the thirteenth session of the International Peace Congress held at Boston during the first week in October, a resolution, looking to universal peace, was unanimously passed giving a model for a proposed convention between all nations for international arbitration. Accepting The Hague tribunal as the nucleus for the movement, all the nations that were parties to The Hague convention, or as many as are willing to join, are urged to enter into a permanent convention to prevent war. The basis of the agreement to be made is as follows:

1. Whilst the high contracting powers mutually recognize each other's absolute sovereignty and independence, they bind themselves, each for itself, to work together for the furtherance of universal peace.

2. The high contracting powers pledge themselves to refer to the permanent arbitral tribunal (established by the convention for the peaceful solution of international disputes, signed at The Hague, July 29, 1899) every dispute or contention which may arise between them that

cannot be solved by diplomacy, or any other amicable adjustment agreed upon, whatever the cause, nature or object of disagreement may be, and further pledge themselves not to engage in any warlike action, directly or indirectly, with respect to each other.

The rights and duties of the various parties to the agreement are defined, with a rotation of the presidency and other safeguards to preserve the balance of power. While there are many difficulties to be met with in carrying out such a plan, this is a striking development of positive peace propaganda.



## Russia Yields on Contraband

It will be remembered that Russia's sweeping definition of contraband, especially in the light of the action of her "converted" cruisers and her prize courts, provoked the displeasure of Great Britain and the United States and led to the presentation of notes of protest. Russia had placed foodstuffs, coal and other fuel, and railway material on the contraband list,



ROBERT TREAT  
PAINE  
President International Peace Congress.



whereas the enlightened practice is to treat them as "conditional" contraband. It was contended by the protestants that the extreme St. Petersburg view made commerce with Japan impossible.

After mature deliberation Russia has informed the governments named that in principle she is prepared to meet their views. Without formally modifying her position, she has so interpreted the original regulations that no unnecessary hardships will be imposed on commerce with Japan by neutral powers in neutral ships. Foodstuffs and fuel are to be placed in the category of articles susceptible of dual use. They will not be confiscated unless consigned to blockaded ports or destined for the military or naval use of Japan,

Shipments in the ordinary course of trade by private firms, even to an enemy's port, will be considered *prima facie* non-contraband; but the simple fact of consignment to, and by, ordinary traders will not be conclusive evidence of the innocent character of the goods. Suspicious circumstances might overcome the presumption. But—and this is an important point—where suspicion is raised, the burden of proof is to rest upon the captor, not upon the consignee or consignor.

Russia's reply is considered to be fairly satisfactory at London and Washington, and thus another source of friction and ill-will is happily removed.



### The Future of Tibet

When, several months ago, Great Britain, yielding to the pressure of Lord Curzon and the Indian government, authorized a semi-military expedition to Tibet, that mysterious land which few Europeans have visited and which has successfully resisted "peaceful penetration," solemn assurances were given in Parliament that England had no intention of meddling with the internal and political affairs of that country, and that the nominal suzerainty of China would be fully respected. The Dalai Lama, it was

stated, had disregarded certain purely commercial treaties between Tibet and India and was intriguing with Russia, and all that was demanded of him and the ruling priests in general was a recognition of the treaties in question and a willingness to arrange better trade relations with India.

The expedition had caused some uneasiness in Russian official circles, though St. Petersburg protested that no attempt at securing special privileges in the way of trade concessions or political predominance had been made by her. She expressed entire satisfaction, however, with the explanations or disclaimers of the British government.

Now the situation is radically changed. The expedition having been resisted, and bloody encounters leading to the capture of Gyangse and the march to the sacred capital, Lhasa, England has modified her view. At Lhasa a new treaty was concluded, the terms of which are objected to by Russia and—under her influence—by China. Tibet, under the treaty, must pay an indemnity of \$2,550,000 annually for three years, and until the indemnity has been discharged in full, the British troops are to occupy a whole province within easy reach of the capital. It is also provided that Tibet shall never lease or sell territory to any other power than Great Britain, nor grant any railway or telegraph concessions to any other power, nor permit any nation to take part in its affairs.



PALACE OF THE FUGITIVE DALAI LAMA  
Lhasa, Tibet.

Unfriendly critics say that this last condition virtually establishes a British protectorate over Tibet and destroys the sovereignty of China over the country. Russia complains that the treaty violates the pledges given by the Balfour government, and she also points out that the integrity of China is menaced by the treaty in a sense repugnant to the Hay note on the subject. The United States has made no move, but Russia, as stated above, has entered a protest against the convention. The question arises whether England has sought to profit by Russia's preoccupation in the war with Japan and proposes to ignore the objections advanced. The Tzar is not in a position to make an issue of the affair, while the course of China will depend largely on the attitude of France and Germany. Tibet prefers isolation, but her wishes are not likely to be consulted.



### Secret Russo-German Alliance

The London *Times*, which prides itself on the completeness and accuracy of its information as regards foreign politics, recently startled diplomatic circles by publishing the history of an alleged understanding arrived at between the Tzar and the Emperor of Germany. These two nations have just concluded a commercial treaty of reciprocity (the details of which are withheld from the public), and it is supposed that at the final meetings a political convention was added unto the commercial one.

According to the *Times*, by this understanding Russia is assured of Germany's support in the ultimate settlement of the terms of peace with Japan. As France is certain to stand by Russia, a situation may arise resembling that which confronted victorious Japan after the war with China, ten years ago, and which resulted in direct intervention to deprive her of Port Arthur and other Chinese territory—"the fruits of conquest." The Peking correspondent of the great Lon-

don paper reports that all over the Far East the opinion is held by European observers of the political game that the Port Arthur fleet, when it attempted the escape which Japan prevented, was bound for Kiao-Chou, the German base held under lease from China, there to be dismantled and kept till the end of the conflict. This arrangement would have offended Japan, but Germany is supposed to be indifferent to the wishes or feelings of that power. Russia in Manchuria would make Germany's position at Kiao-Chou untenable, and with Kiao-Chou would be lost the great province of Shantung, which the Teutonic Empire has hoped to acquire and develop as a German colony.

But how, it may be asked, does this alleged understanding affect Great Britain? The answer is that, in English opinion, the Russo-German relations are part of a settled scheme of aggrandizement largely at British expense in the Yang-Tsze valley. The reported alliance is thus a menace to England as well as to Japan, and the Balfour government is advised to endeavor to come to an understanding with France in regard to the matter, the idea being that an Anglo-French veto would avert the threatened danger.

The German foreign office has denied these charges, but no importance is attached in London to the formal disclaimer. There is evidence that St. Petersburg complacently counts on the benevolent neutrality of Germany. She has sent her finest troops from the western provinces to the Far East and has freely bought ships and war material in



SENIOR EDUARDO  
DIAZ  
Minister from  
Uruguay to the  
United States.

Germany. As the great German lines are notoriously under the influence of the government, it is concluded that they would never have been allowed to sell large steamers to Russia, knowing that they would be converted into commerce destroyers, had not an understanding of some kind been reached between the Tzar and the Emperor.

It should be added that there has been much discussion of late concerning the need and possibility of an Anglo-Russian understanding. Of course, an alliance between Muscovy and Germany would definitely eliminate that scheme from diplomatic calculations.



### Modern Socialism and Opportunism

At the recent international Socialist congress, held at Amsterdam, the most exciting and interesting debate had for its subject the attitude of modern Socialists toward "capitalistic" parties and the political struggles of the day. The question discussed might be framed thus: Should convinced and earnest Socialists treat all "bourgeois" parties alike, as supporters of a decaying and dying social-economic order, and refuse to help or coöperate with any of them for any purpose whatever, or should they pursue an opportunist policy, work with the progressive parties to pre-

vent reaction, and strive to obtain whatever reform parliaments and other legislative bodies can be induced or compelled to grant?

The question is not merely a theoretical one. The Socialists are an important political faction in France, Italy, Belgium and Germany. In the first named country, as we have shown in former issues, the Socialists have been for some years a governing party. Without the votes, speeches and work of the Socialist group of deputies, led by men like Jaurés and Millerand, the ministries of Waldeck-Rousseau and Combes could not have been formed, kept in power and permitted to do the very notable things they have accomplished.

The position of the Marxian or "revolutionary" Socialists is that under no circumstances is it proper for those who would destroy the present order to coöperate with its defenders. They must fight under their own banner for their own ideals, and remain wholly indifferent to the quarrels among so-called Conservatives and so-called Liberals or Radicals. Jaurés and his supporters contended that pending the conversion of a majority to Socialism it is the interest and duty of Socialists to employ ordinary political means for the realization of reforms that are good in themselves or that tend to and pave the way for the great reform. In



WILLIAM A.  
CLARK  
Copper king.



HENRY O.  
HAVEMYER  
Sugar king.



WILLIAM K.  
VANDERBILT  
Railway king.



ANDREW  
CARNEGIE  
Steel king.



J. PIERPONT  
MORGAN  
Trust king.



JOHN D.  
ROCKEFELLER  
Oil king.

MODERN KINGS

—From *Lustige Blätter*.

France, Jaurés pointed out, the Socialists have secured a shorter workday for the miners, the promise of old-age pensions, the just treatment of strikers, etc. Owing to Socialist support, clericalism and militarism have been subordinated to the civil power, military service has been reduced, justice has been vindicated in the Dreyfus affair, and separation of Church and State has been accepted in principle. What has Socialism, in spite of its 3,000,000 votes, achieved in Germany under the Bebel policy of isolation?

After a remarkable discussion a compromise resolution was defeated by a vote of 21 to 21—a tie, each nation, no matter what the number of delegates, casting two votes. A resolution was passed “repudiating,” but not condemning, all efforts tending to obscure the class war between Socialism and capitalism and leading to any alliance or understanding with the bourgeois parties.

This was apparently a defeat for Jaurés and his friends, the opportunist-Socialists, and a victory for the extremists. The moral effect of the resolution is slight, for the representatives of the most advanced countries, with the exception of Germany, sympathized with Jaurés, while many abstained from voting. The French Socialists in the chamber of deputies will not change their course, for the majority of their adherents approve of it.

The congress was truly international in spirit. The fraternization of Japan's delegate with the Russian representatives provoked an enthusiastic demonstration. With Socialists internationalism is a living faith.



## The Defeat of the Australian “Labor” Ministry

It will be remembered that last spring the Labor party of the Australian commonwealth, which held the balance of power in parliament, was called upon to assume the duties and responsibilities of government. Its representatives in the

lower house had defeated two ministries on the question of compulsory arbitration for those engaged in interstate commerce, the chief difficulty being an amendment applying the bill to employes of the several states and of the commonwealth, and as neither of the middle-class parties was in a position to dispense with the support of the labor representatives, it seemed more logical and politically more “regular” to ask the Labor party to form a government. The Watson ministry—a “trade union ministry”—



THE LATE HENRY C. PAYNE  
Postmaster General of the United States.

was then formed, to the amazement of the outside world and the apprehension of the conservative classes of Great Britain.

The Watson program was an exceedingly moderate one and nothing alarming was threatened or announced by it. Considerable sagacity and efficiency were displayed by the labor ministry, but no one expected it to remain in power very long. It had no majority in either house, and was compelled to depend on the votes of Protectionist-Conservatives or Free-Trade Liberals.

In August the minority came to grief. Premier Watson had reintroduced the compulsory arbitration bill, which contained a modified provision regarding federal employes as well as a provision requiring the courts of arbitration to give preference in their awards, in the matter of employment, to members of unions. This latter was opposed by the Free Traders and Liberals, and it was rejected by a narrow majority. This amounted to a vote of “no confidence,” and the Watson ministry retired from power.

The Labor party suggested a general

election, but the Governor-General decided to make another attempt at obtaining a more or less stable ministry under the present distribution of political power.

The two middle-class parties had for months been considering the wisdom of waiving differences on the fiscal issue (protection, preferential tariff arrangements with England, etc.) and coalescing for the purpose of governing without the aid and in spite of the opposition of the Labor party. The obstacles in the way were many and formidable, but they seem to have been surmounted, and the Watson government has been succeeded by a two headed ministry representing and relying on both Protectionists and Free Traders, Conservatives and Liberals. Mr. Reid, the leader of the Free Traders, is the premier, while a Victorian protectionist, Mr. McLean, is a sort of co-premier, ranking as equal with Mr. Reid. The fiscal issue has been "shelved," but it is doubted whether this will suffice as a basis of co-operation. The premier has issued a strong manifesto against the Labor party, which he accuses of selfishness and lack of patriotism.

The situation is not comfortable for either of the middle-class parties, and a dissolution of parliament cannot long be avoided. The new ministry is doomed to impotence.



### British Unions in Congress

At the recent annual congress of the British trade unions four hundred and fifty delegates, representing over 1,500,000 organized workmen, restated and defined the position of labor on the leading political and economic questions of the day. The resolutions adopted by that body are undoubtedly significant.

In the first place, the congress unqualifiedly condemned the Chamberlain program of protection plus preference for the self-governing colonies. Labor, in the union of the congress, could not possibly

be benefited by reversion to food taxes and restrictions on international trade, and must oppose all attempts at changing the present fiscal system. So far as the British unions are concerned the Chamberlain propaganda has failed utterly. They stand exactly where they stood a year ago, when Mr. Chamberlain first raised his banner of fiscal revolt. And it is conceded that the decision of the great issue rests with labor.

In the second place, the congress, while congratulating the Australian workmen on their successful discharge of the function of government, rejected a resolution in favor of compulsory arbitration, which is a central article of the Australian labor creed. By a decisive majority the congress reaffirmed the ancient British faith in individual liberty and free industry. It believes in conciliation and arbitration, but not in governmental regulation of wages, hours, etc. And this at a time when the status of trade unions in Great Britain leaves a great deal to be desired.

A series of unfavorable decisions by the higher courts has placed new burdens and responsibilities upon the labor organizations, and their funds are open to attack in damage suits under circumstances never contemplated by Parliament. A bill to neutralize these decisions and modify the laws of conspiracy in favor of labor has received little attention, and the congress severely criticized the Balfour ministry for this indifference to the interests of labor. In England, as in the United States, public opinion is rather hostile to unionism at this juncture, and bills extending its powers, privileges or exemptions encounter resolute opposition.

Notwithstanding these facts, the congress declared against compulsory arbitration. At the same time it adopted a resolution urging upon the workmen independent political action and the election of members of parliament from the ranks of labor with reference to issues of direct and vital interest to unionism.

## A Great Church Dispute

From a religious as well as from a legal point of view the case of "The General Assembly of the Free Church of Scotland and others vs. Lord Overton and others" is one of uncommon interest and importance. The decision recently rendered therein by the House of Lords, the highest court of appeals in Great Britain, has precipitated a bitter church war, although the better opinion is that a sober second thought will incline both parties to a reasonable and equitable settlement.

The issue in the case was this: If bequests and donations are made to a voluntary society under the terms of its existing constitution, to whom will the property accumulated by the society belong when a majority of the society, or the whole society except a very small minority, changes its fundamental doctrines—to the majority or to the conservative minority?

According to the House of Lords, the answer is, To the loyal and faithful minority. This, it is recognized, is a strictly legal view. Public policy, the "higher law" of general progress and the interests of society are declared to dictate the opposite conclusion. The courts of last resort are disposed to determine difficult and delicate questions in the light of public policy and the greatest good of the greatest number, not in that of severely legal principles; hence the decision in the case in question is to many a startling surprise.

The history of the case is instructive: In 1843 a large body of ministers seceded from the Established Church of Scotland as a protest against certain rulings of the lay courts. The seceders, however, did not renounce their belief in the doctrine of an established church; they merely objected to certain deductions from that doctrine. But in the year 1900 a majority of the assembly of these seceders decided to unite with another voluntary religious body, the United Presbyterians, who do not believe in establishment. This action

involved a surrender of the fundamental doctrine of establishment, and the minority violently opposed it. The members of the minority call themselves the Old Free Church, and after the merging of the majority in the new "United Free Church" they brought an action to restrain the new trustees, Lord Overton and others, from dealing with and claiming the property of the church. Their contention was that, however weak they might be in numbers, they had the title to the whole property of the church, as professing the fundamental doctrines of the original contractors.

In upholding this contention and declaring the Old Free Church faction to be entitled to the realty and personalty of the church (amounting to over \$5,000,000) the House of Lords cited the dictum of Lord Eldon that he knew of no case where the minority of a sect or body forfeited its rights by adhering to the original tenets and traditions and constitution of the sect or body. The majority might secede and set up new doctrines, but it could not take with it the property acquired under the old constitution.

That this view would discourage progress and change cannot be denied. It also means what is called "the rule of the dead hand." But the remedy is obvious. Either the donors or the society receiving gifts and bequests should make some provision for change in the constitution and the disposition of accumulated property in that event.

This extraordinary contest recalls the Dartmouth College case and the principle laid down therein by the United States



THE LATE GEORGE  
FRISBIE HOAR  
United States Senator  
from Massachusetts.

Supreme Court—a principle which, in the opinion of many, has entailed considerable injustice and harm.



### Senator George F. Hoar

In the death of the senior Senator of the United States from Massachusetts the country and the national legislature sustained a severe loss. Though he had reached a very advanced age, Senator Hoar's long and fatal illness caused as profound a sorrow as is felt only over the untimely demise of a great statesman with half of his public life still before him.

Mr. Hoar had endeared himself not only to New England, whose best traditions he always cherished and most loyally represented, but to the country as a whole. Even when he was out of sympathy with the tendencies of his party, if not of his age, his courage, his devotion to principle, his love of truth and righteousness as he saw them and eloquently, movingly, impressively expounded them, commanded general respect. Mr. Hoar had changed little; many of his associates had changed much; even those who regarded him as too conservative a man, however, could not but pay willing tribute to his masterly pleading for the ideals of an earlier generation.

Senator Hoar was an ardent Republican, a convinced protectionist and a friend of labor. When the Philippine issue arose he felt constrained to oppose the administration and the majority of his party. Yet he never voted for a Democratic candidate and seldom for a Democratic measure, in connection with that issue. He ever championed the rights of man without regard to race, color or condition, but he believed in his party too much to secede from it when, in his judgment, it was pursuing a wrong course. He was one of those stalwart partisans who, though intellectually independent, assert their independence within the limits of practical party regularity.

The late senator was a scholar and

author as well as a statesman. His writings have literary and historical value, and his recent book of recollections achieved a notable and deserved success. To his particular estimates of men, especially of men of another political creed, exception may be taken. But he never penned a line in malice or uncharitableness, and he never hastily expressed a judgment. Conscious and sincere, gifted and well-informed, pure and simple and dignified, George F. Hoar will long be remembered and mourned as the grand old man of American politics.



### What the Paraphraser Say

Teacher—"Willie, what's the masculine of 'laundress'?" Willie Wiseguy—"Chinaman!"—*Town and Country*.

Rag-time taught by mail. My system, in three easy lessons, enables any one to play any piece in *real* rag-time. Particulars free.—*Bona-fide newspaper advertisement*.

The Tzar proposes to decorate some of the war correspondents. He should have special St. Ananias badges made for those at Chefoo and Shanghai.—*The Fourth Estate, New York*.

"Did you never take money to which you were not entitled?" asked the close and critical friend. "No," answered Senator Sorghum. "The sums to which you refer were no more than a reasonable compensation for the wear and tear on my conscience."—*Washington Star*.

Young Hopeful—"Father, what is a 'traitor in politics'?" This paper says Congressman Jaw-weary is one." Veteran Politician—"A traitor is a man who leaves our party and goes over to the other one." Young Hopeful—"Well, then, what is a man who leaves the other party and comes over to ours?" Veteran Politician—"A convert, my son."—*Boston Transcript*.



"FLOWERS THAT BLOOM IN THE FALL, TRA LA"

—From the *Cleveland Plain Dealer*.



## Reaction and the Republican Revival

By Frederic Austin Ogg

University of Indiana. Author of "Saxon and Slav."

**A**FTER the great struggle at Leipzig in October, 1813, sometimes known as the Battle of the Nations, the prestige of Napoleon in Europe rapidly waned. Four leading powers—England, Russia, Austria, and Prussia—had entered into a solemn compact to put a check upon the ambitious career of the upstart emperor and now at the conclusion of his disastrous campaign in Russia they perceived that at last the hour of opportunity had come. Marching their combined armies to the French frontier, they proceeded to lay down for Napoleon certain specific terms of peace, and to give him to understand that only by accepting these could he hope to avert an immediate military invasion of his dominions. The terms were surprisingly liberal—France, for example, to be allowed to retain her greatly extended boundaries of 1792—but the haughty emperor was obdurate, and in six months' time the armies of the Allies had overrun France and entered Paris in triumph. Seeing now when it was too late the utter impossibility of maintaining his high place of authority, Napoleon sought to be allowed to abdicate in favor

of his son; but the Allies were determined upon his complete elimination from the politics of Europe and the French Senate forthwith proceeded to decree his immediate deposition. He was then transported to the little island of Elba in the Mediterranean where the Allies with somewhat ironical generosity created for him an independent principality, at the same time hedging him about with a guard calculated to prevent his escape. It was believed that Europe would henceforth be free from his disturbing influence and ambitions.

This turn of affairs left France without a government. The deficiency was soon supplied, however, for one of the brothers of the Bourbon Louis XVI appeared upon the scene, pledged himself to grant the people a constitution and to govern by it, and was quickly recognized by the Senate as Louis XVIII. The Allies then made peace on easy terms with the re-established monarchy and withdrew their forces.

With the downfall of Napoleon began a new era in the history of nineteenth-century Europe. That event, together with the restoration of the Bourbons to

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**This is the third of a series of nine articles on "Social Progress in Europe." The complete list in THE CHAUTAUQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:**

**Some Features of the Old Régime (September).  
The Afterglow of the Revolution (October).  
Reaction and the Republican Revival (November).  
England and the Industrial Revolution (December).  
England During the Victorian Era (January).**

**Recent Social Movements in the Romance Countries (February).  
Germany and the Progress of Socialism (March).  
Social and Industrial Russia (April).  
The Rumbblings of Russian Discontent (May).**



the throne of France, left the way open for the old forces of aristocracy and special privilege to assert themselves in a way they had not been able to do for a quarter of a century. Napoleon had been no champion of democracy, but, as we have seen, he had served well the people of western Europe by securing for them



TZAR ALEXANDER I

the best fruits of the Revolution and warding off the reaction which must have been fatal if it had come sooner. As long as Napoleon's power lasted a reversion to the social and economic conditions of the Old Régime was quite impossible. When that power was broken the reaction at once set in, and a terrible strain upon the new social system it was. For a generation—that is to say from 1814 to about 1850—there was an almost incessant struggle throughout all western Europe, especially in France and Austria, between kings, nobles, clergy, and others interested in a restoration of conditions existing before 1789, on the one hand, and the masses of the people supported by the business and professional classes in general, on the other. The issue, clearly defined, was simply whether the reforms wrought out by the revolutionists and by

Napoleon in government, in taxation, in land tenure, in personal freedom, in the rendering of justice in the courts, and in the relations of the individual to the state—matters of vital interest to even the humblest citizen or subject—should be repudiated or should be acknowledged as the foundations of future society. The story of this great conflict is a long and rather complicated one, for it involves many centuries, many personalities, and many events. Only a few of its most significant features can here be alluded to.

The era of reaction took its formal beginning in the Congress of Vienna, in some respects the most famous assemblage of sovereigns and diplomats that Europe has ever known. The congress met, in November, 1814, at the invitation of the four Allies and included representatives of nearly a hundred European states of more or less importance. In fact Turkey was the only power which did not participate. Austria was represented by the emperor's chief minister Metternich, France by Napoleon's old foreign minister Talleyrand, Russia by the Tzar Alexander I, England by Wellington and Lord Castlereagh, and Prussia by King Frederick William, Hardenberg, and William von Humboldt. The three men most responsible for the work of the Congress were Tzar Alexander, Talleyrand, and Metternich, the last-mentioned being the presiding officer at the public sessions. The primary object of the congress was to make a readjustment of the map of Europe, so seriously deranged by the conquests and state-building of Napoleon. Sovereigns who had been deposed were clamoring for their thrones; others who had merely lost territorial possessions were demanding them back; while by the treaty of the Allies with Louis XVIII all the lands which had been annexed to France since 1792 were cut off from that state and left in chaos to be disposed of by later agreement. After months of conferences, intrigues and diplo-

matic bargainings, mingled with the most extravagant social diversions, the Congress finally accomplished its work; or rather, the five leading powers—Austria, England, France, Prussia, and Russia—did, for the lesser ones had almost nothing to say regarding the conclusions reached. The territorial settlement effected is of little importance for our purposes. Suffice it to say that the old German and Italian principalities were mostly restored—Italy being left in twelve fragments and Germany in thirty-eight; Holland was made into the Kingdom of the Netherlands, with Belgium annexed; Switzerland was given French territory and made a neutralized state; Sweden lost Finland to Russia; Denmark lost Norway to Sweden; the Kingdom of Sardinia regained Nice and Savoy and also acquired the old Republic of Genoa; and England received compensation for services against Napoleon in the shape of colonial possessions, including Malta, Ceylon, Cape Colony, and the Ionian Islands.

For a few months in 1815 the work of the Congress was broken into by the spectacular return of Napoleon from Elba and his titanic attempt, culminating at Waterloo, to regain the great power he had lost. But after arrangements had been effected for massing the military force of the larger powers against the invader deliberations upon the peaceful settlement of Europe were resumed, and before its arch-enemy had yet been condemned to St. Helena the Congress had completed its task.

This task, self-imposed, was indeed much larger than the mere reconstruction of the map of Europe. It involved nothing less than the restoration, as far as that was possible, of the social and political conditions of the Old Régime in France and the safeguarding of all the rest of Europe from any effort of the people to throw off similar conditions. The Congress was composed of princes and lackeys, representing courts and dynasties and in no sense the people, and it stood

distinctly and absolutely for a policy of reaction. Autocracy was its watchword. As the historian Fyffe puts it, "It complacently set to work to turn back the hands of time to the historic hour at which they stood when the Bastille fell."

It must be readily apparent that such a purpose could be only partially realized, even for the time, and that in the long run it was pretty certain to meet with failure. It was easy enough for the dignitaries to enumerate features of the great revolutionary struggle which all sane men would agree were horrible and ruinous—the loss of life and treasure, the paralyzing of business, the feeding fat of class



TALLEYRAND

(Charles Maurice de Talleyrand-Périgord)

prejudices and animosities—but these things had been accompanied by incalculable social and industrial improvements in which all the great body of citizens had shared more or less and which they were as willing to maintain by bloodshed as they had been to acquire at such cost in the first place. Try as they would, the powers of reaction could not undo the work of the Revolution. Nowhere was

this fact more patent than in France itself. The new king, Louis XVIII, in compliance with his promise when the Senate acknowledged his accession, issued in 1814 a Charter, or constitution which unequivocally recognized the permanency of the more important results of the Revolution. Louis declared he had no intention of restoring the old class privileges or interfering in any way with the admirable administrative system set up by Napoleon. He recognized that "the expectations of enlightened Europe" demanded such acquiescence in the new order of things, and it is significant that not all the declarations and commands of the reactionists at Vienna were able to change his mind. By the charter of 1814 all Frenchmen were declared to be equal before the law, and equally eligible to civil and military positions. Personal liberty and religious freedom were guaranteed, and all citizens, without distinction of rank, were to be required to pay taxes exactly in proportion to their means. Laws were to be made by the House of Peers and a popularly elected Chamber of Deputies, with the sole right of initiating legislation and the power of veto vested in the king. The lower house was competent to impeach the highest royal ministers and was given full control over taxation. It was chosen, however, on the basis of a property qualification so high that it could hardly be said to be representative of the nation as a whole. Only persons paying as much as sixty dollars a year in direct taxes could vote for a deputy. Out of a total population of nearly thirty millions there were not more than one hundred thousand such voters—about one man in seventy. No one could be elected a deputy unless he paid as much as two hundred dollars a year, and there were whole districts which contained hardly enough such persons to fill their quota of seats in the Chamber. Yet in most respects the provisions of the Charter complied pretty well with the demands of the early revolutionists in their

famous Declaration of the Rights of Man.

Even with all this there was still much popular dissatisfaction with the Bourbon restoration. Louis XVIII was not wholly master of the situation and there were many opportunities for the aristocratic element to assert itself with direful effect. The old emigrant nobles, led now as ever by the king's brother, the Count of Artois, and by the clergy, made up a reactionary party of no little power. Under their influence the French *parlement* began to pass oppressive measures and the king was led to coöperate with the absolute rulers of Italy and Spain to quell revolutionary movements in those countries. Extreme royalists were talking, too, of restoring the lands lost by the Church and the *émigrés*. This would mean the dispossessing of many thousand small farmers—men who before the Revolution had been poverty-stricken dependents; but who in the past generation had become independent and even well-to-do freeholders. In the army men who had gained recognition by merit alone were being displaced by nobles returning from exile in border countries. There was a very real danger that in these and other similar ways the new régime of liberty, justice, and equal opportunity would be stealthily undermined. It was mainly because even a few months of Bourbon government had confirmed this idea in the popular mind that Napoleon was received with such demonstrations of joy upon his escape from Elba. During the famous "Hundred Days" the great soldier-sovereign gave orders for the drafting of a free constitution for France—freer, even, than had marked his earlier government. The work was done and the people of France accepted it gladly, but of course the early overthrow of its sponsor at Waterloo entirely obliterated it.

Outside of France the reaction was less hampered by a preponderant public will. Liberal government and free thought were everywhere repudiated. Petty rulers

of German and Italian states set out to ignore the past two decades and boasted that they had "learned nothing and forgotten nothing." A school history of the time spoke of Austerlitz as "a victory gained by General Bonaparte, a lieutenant of the king of France." The king of Sardinia reestablished serfdom, and in Spain and the Papal dominions the inquisition and other relics of the Middle Ages were ceremoniously restored. It seemed that, not content with obliterating the remains of the recent revolutionary epoch, the reactionary monarchs were endeavoring to dig far back into the past and drag out institutions and implements of despotism consecrated to the cause of autocracy by centuries of usage. Many absurd things were done—perhaps none more conspicuous than the uprooting of French plants in many botanical gardens and the abolishing of French material improvements, such as street-lamps, and French medical discoveries, such as vaccination. Russia, Austria and Prussia were avowedly "divine right" monarchies. Alexander I and Frederick William III, it is true, "played a little at liberalism," as one writer has put it, but the slightest show of revolution was sufficient to put an end to such experimenting. In France the theory of divine right persisted until 1830, and even in England the Tory party was in the ascendancy, pledged against any further extension of democracy.

The dominant figure in the great era of reaction thus inaugurated was the Austrian minister Metternich—the man who Napoleon declared "narrowly missed being a statesman" because he mistook intrigue for statesmanship. His political creed was brief but unmistakable. "Sovereigns alone," it ran, "are entitled to guide the destinies of their people, and they are responsible to none but God. Government is no more a subject for debate than religion is." His master, Emperor Francis, was in hearty accord with this sentiment. In an address to the faculty of an Austrian college he declared:

"New ideas are being promulgated of which I can not and will not approve. Abide by the old. They are good; our fathers prospered under them; why should not we? I do not need wise men, but brave and obedient subjects." The monarch simply assumed, of course, that the criterion of all things was his own need, not that of his people. Metternich was not so foolish as to delude himself into thinking that the Old Régime could ever be fully restored again. He bitterly regretted that the spirit of liberalism and democracy and national patriotism had ever got abroad among the populace of Europe, but now that it had done so the best he could hope was that the governing powers might be able to hold the new ideas in check and prevent any recurrence of popular revolution such as had transformed France and shaken all western Europe to its very foundations. The policy which Metternich adopted for his own country, and urged upon monarchs and their ministers everywhere, was summed up in the phrase "Do nothing and let nothing be done." Europe was to be kept at a standstill, lest in the exigency of doing things opportunity be afforded for popular organization, agitation, and ultimate revolution. The one beneficent outcome of this policy was the forty years of almost unbroken peace which followed the final banishment of Napoleon.

In Austria, where of course Metternich's influence was brought to bear most directly, a rigid system of police espionage and popular suppression was set up such as the world has rarely seen paralleled. The country was to be shut up within its own confines as thoroughly as if by an insurmountable wall of adamant. Foreign ideas and books and newspapers which might contain such ideas, were rigorously excluded. Scholars from other countries dare not cross the Austrian borders and neither could Austrian citizens go abroad for the sake of study and observation. In the schools and universities only such subjects as the history,

languages, and literature of the Orient, mathematics, poetry, and music were allowed to be taught. Not more than three-fifths of the children of school age received any sort of instruction whatever, and such as there was consisted in mere mechanical drills without the slightest exercise of the powers of reason. It was feared that if these powers were awakened they would be applied some day to social and political subjects and so give an incentive to revolution. Everywhere the Catholic clergy were the devoted agents of the autocratic state and without their approval no one could entertain hope for any sort of promotion or advancement, or even for ordinary peace and security.

In every part of Europe Metternich had his lieutenants and spies and wherever there was an opportunity he made his influence felt on the side of autocracy. Despite the labors of Stein, the Congress of Vienna had done no more for German national unity than to create a weak German federation of thirty-eight states with Austria as its nominal head, and it was in the states composing this federal union that Metternich's authority counted for most. The liberal and progressive party in Germany was bitterly disappointed at the failure of nationalism and became suspicious that the princes, among them the King of Prussia, who had promised constitutional government were insincere and not to be trusted. About 1815 numerous associations of students began to spring up, pledged to incessant agitation in behalf of liberty and national unity, and in 1817 some of these in the course of a celebration at the Wartburg castle in the Duchy of Weimar boldly denounced the reactionary powers and publicly burned certain pamphlets by which the latter were endeavoring to lull the people to political inaction. Unfortunately this affair was followed by the murder by a fanatical student of a Russian journalist who was alleged to have influenced Tzar Alexander against liberalism.

Metternich made the most of the oppor-

tunity and in August, 1819, called together representatives of the leading German states in a conference at Carlsbad. The result was a series of resolutions intended to check the criticism of existing institutions and providing for the apprehension and punishment of all persons who gave expression to revolutionary sentiment. Students' associations were to be broken up and a royal official was to be stationed at each university to act as a censor over the professors. If any of the latter were found guilty of "abusing their legitimate influence over the youthful mind and propagating harmful doctrines hostile to the public order or subversive of the existing governmental institutions," they were to be removed summarily from their offices. It was further provided that no newspaper, pamphlet, or book should go to press without having been inspected and approved by government agents, and public speakers who should foster discontent among the people were to be promptly suppressed. The Carlsbad Resolutions were adopted by the Austrian Diet, being renewed in 1824 and 1833, and for thirty years they were the guiding principles of all the German governments. "During this time," says Professor West, "thousands of enthusiastic youths were sent into exile or to prison for long terms, for singing forbidden patriotic songs, or for wearing the colors black, red, and orange, — the symbol of German unity." Liberalism survived, but it was under a heavy ban and for a longer time than one might suppose Metternich's enforced political calm was almost unbroken in central and northern Europe. The fact that the absolutely inefficient German "Federation" lasted all the way from 1815 to 1866 testifies to the meagreness of national progress during that long period,

Nevertheless, taking Europe as a whole, this very epoch was one during which the two great political forces of the nineteenth century—democracy and nationality—developed to the point of complete

triumph. The Congress of Vienna and the reactionists in general ignored these forces and Metternich fought them with all his might, but they were merely driven underground and forced to work through secret societies and plots. During the period three great waves of revolution swept over portions of the continent—in 1820, 1830, and 1848—and when the last had done its work Europe was largely what it is today and the whole scheme of reaction was forever wrecked.

The rising in 1820 was confined mainly to the countries of southern Europe. It began in Spain, where King Ferdinand VII had repudiated his pledge to preserve the Constitution of 1812. Soldiers who had been assembled for service in the revolting American colonies mutinied and led an uprising which soon spread throughout the kingdom and forced the king in terror to call the Cortes, or national legislature, and restore the Constitution. Conditions elsewhere were ripe for similar movements and before the end of the year the kings of Portugal and Naples had been compelled to set up constitutional governments and

Sicily was in revolt against Naples because the new system had not been extended to that dependency. In twelve months more Piedmont, Lombardy, and Venetia were smouldering with revolution and the Greeks had begun their long and romantic struggle for independence from Turkish misrule. Secret revolutionary societies, such as the *Carbonari* (charcoal burners) in Italy, flourished everywhere and the masses of the people, though inefficiently organized, were thoroughly aroused. The time for final success had not yet come, however, and by skilfully converting the alliance of Russia, Prus-

sia, and Austria formed at Vienna in 1815 against future aggressions of France into a league including France and bent upon the crushing of revolution in southern Europe, Metternich was able pretty thoroughly to thwart the designs of the people in almost all of the affected countries. This was the famous "Holy Alliance" which, through the medium of French arms, intervened in Spain and restored King Ferdinand to his throne of absolutism, though due to England's opposition and the promulgation of the so-called Monroe Doctrine by the President of the United States it utterly failed to accom-



PALAIS DU LUXEMBOURG, PARIS

Royal Residence, Louis XVIII. Occupied as Senate Chamber under the First and Second Empires. Chamber of Peers under Louis Philippe. Place of Socialist meetings in 1848.

plish the restoration of Spanish colonial power in South America. Metternich had hoped to intervene in Greece and quickly reduce the rebellious subjects of the Turk to order. But the public sentiment of western Europe and the religious sympathies of the Russian people would not permit of such a course and when finally intervention came it was on behalf of the Greeks rather than against them. In 1827 England, France, and Russia forced a truce, though the English admiral in command of the three allied fleets exceeded his instructions and in October precipitated a great naval battle at Nav-

arino, totally annihilating the sea-power of the Turks. After some further fighting on the part of the Russians, the Turks were compelled to give up and the Greek people were recognized as free. The action of England, France, and Russia in this matter not only assured the independence and future prosperity of a long-suffering people but it showed a tendency of the greater powers to break away from Metternich's reactionary policy which was most gratifying to the friends of popular liberty.

Meanwhile there had been interesting developments in France. During the decade covered by the reign of Louis XVIII the "Liberals" and the "Ultras" were the closest of rivals for the control of the Chamber of Deputies and for the benefits of the king's favor. No very decided advantage was gained by either party, and while politics thus boiled furiously at the capital the great body of the French peo-

during the six years of his reign Metternich's great scheme of autocracy came nearer being applied *in toto* to France than at any other time. The Ultras got control of the Chamber and proceeded to pass one reactionary measure after another. The emigrant nobles were given two hundred millions of dollars out of the people's taxes to compensate them for their losses of land during the Revolution; the government joined the Holy Alliance and became its willing tool in the suppression of revolution in Spain; the liberty of the press was restricted, and the historian Guizot was restrained from delivering lectures because of political sentiments to which he gave utterance; landed aristocrats were given double votes in the elections. In 1827 the king ordered new elections, hoping to get rid of even the small Liberal minority in the Chamber which had annoyed him by its course of bitter opposition. But so thoroughly was

the nation aroused by the danger that, despite all the Court could do, the new Chamber contained a decisive majority of Liberals. For a few months Charles tried to make the best of this unlooked-for contingency. But harmony was impossible and ere long monarch and legislature were acting in open defiance of each other. New elections were held and the Liberals completely ousted the remaining Ultras in the Chamber. Lafayette, now



HOTEL DE VILLE, PARIS

ple were enjoying order and tranquility and were more prosperous and happy than they had ever been. In 1824 Louis died and was succeeded by his brother, the Count of Artois, under the name of Charles X. The new monarch was both more hostile to democracy and more decisive in action than his predecessor and

an old man, journeyed up and down the country arousing the people to the necessity of eliminating the Ultra element from the government. Charles answered by a series of "July Ordinances" (issued July 26, 1830) by which the Charter, or constitution, granted by Louis XVIII in 1814 was revoked, the publication of news-

papers without royal approval forbidden, the newly elected Chamber dissolved, a new law of elections was promulgated on the king's authority alone, and an election ordered under this new rule. This course was so patently defiant of the clearly recognized will of the nation that none but fanatical royalists could defend it. Even Metternich declared: "The men of lead are on the side of the Constitution; Charles X should remember 1789." But the king was one of the blindest and most hot-headed of all the Bourbons and could not be persuaded to stop in his mad course of folly. A body of Paris journalists publicly protested against the Ordinances, declared them illegal, and called upon the people of France to make resistance. Probably only legal resistance was intended, but Paris was filled with malcontents who were more than willing to precipitate a forcible uprising and in a few hours the movement had gone too far to be checked. "Committees of Insurrection" were appointed, the tri-color was flung to the breeze from the Hôtel de Ville, angry crowds barricaded the streets with heaps of paving stones, and Lafayette himself took active command of the military preparations. July 28, 29, and 30 were the three days made famous by the so-called Revolution of 1830. The streets of Paris ran with the blood of four thousand soldiers and revolutionists. From a mere demand for the dismissal of the Ultra ministry the movement rapidly grew into an attack upon the existing monarchy. "Down with the Bourbons" became the rallying cry. While the fighting was going on the king hunted as usual in the forests about the palace at St. Cloud in the suburbs and even while the scepter was being snatched forever from his hand and from the possession of his distinguished family his greatest interest lay in the game of whist in which he was engaged with some boon companions. Realizing that conditions were not ripe for a republic, the Liberal deputies in the legislature decided to bestow the crown

upon Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, a distant cousin of the king, but as keen a revolutionist as any in the days of '89. Philippe was the first given the title of Lieutenant General, but as soon as the legislature met the old Charter was re-



LAFAYETTE

(Marie Jean Paul Roch Yves Gilbert Motier, Marquis de Lafayette)

vised and liberalized and the crown formally conferred upon the Orleanist.

The people of France very willingly acquiesced in the results of the Revolution of 1830. There was no fighting outside of Paris and no need of any. Paris was the stronghold of the monarchy and aristocracy, and if these could not maintain themselves there their cause was hopeless. From the standpoint of the people the gains resulting from the "lightning revolution" were many and important. Divine right as a feature of kingship was done away, for Louis Philippe had no title to the throne whatever except the choice of the Chamber, and he was to rule by a constitution, not one which he had granted of his own good grace, but one which had been imposed upon him



as a condition of accession to the throne. The revised Charter abolished the king's power to issue ordinances and his exclusive right to initiate legislation. The old clauses providing for the possible need of limiting the freedom of the press were expunged. The reactionary measures of the years 1820-1830 were repealed and by a new electoral law the franchise was extended to all who paid forty dollars in taxes. This about doubled the number of voters, making it something like two



NAPOLEON III

hundred thousand. The property qualification for seats in the Chamber was reduced one-half. The Orleanist monarchy was a creation of the bourgeoisie, and the king himself was clearly a member of that respectable but commonplace order. Walking the streets of Paris with a green cotton umbrella under his arm, Louis Philippe was the most democratic king France had ever known and a curious anomaly among the contemporary sovereigns of Europe.

The reign of the citizen king extended from 1830 to 1848—from one revolution to the next one. It was marked by continued party strife which greatly interfered with the interests of the people and the progress of reform. During the last

eight years the government was administered in the main by the prime minister Guizot. His conservatism preserved peace when peace was needed, but it was not conducive to changes in social and industrial conditions. Many proposals made by the Liberals in the legislature, such as the reduction of the salt tax, the extension of education, the reform of the postal system, the improvement of prisons, and the establishing of charitable institutions were quietly suppressed by the ministry. Popular disappointment with the new order was the result and a great demand grew up for an extension of the franchise and the abolition of the shameless corruption which Guizot permitted, and even indulged in, in the affairs of the government. The Liberals appealed to the thirty-nine-fortieths of the nation who had no vote and led in a mighty agitation for reform. The government tried to put an end to the movement, but only succeeded in bringing about the Revolution of 1848—the greatest social and political uprising that Europe had known since the French Revolution of 1789, and by far the most important movement of the sort during the nineteenth century.

In the next chapter this subject will be taken up in some detail, together with a survey of some of the social conditions of the time, and the widely varied plans that were devised to remedy the prevailing social disorders.

#### TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- I. The fall of Napoleon and the restoration of the Bourbon monarchy in France.
- II. The Congress of Vienna and the aristocratic reaction.
  1. Opening of a new era.
  2. Membership and work of the Congress.
  3. Attempt to subvert the reforms of the Revolution and of Napoleon.
  4. Difficulties in the way of the reactionists.
- III. France after the Bourbon restoration.
  1. Louis XVIII's Charter of 1814.
  2. Pressure of the royalist and aristocratic parties.
  3. Popular discontent with the new régime.

- IV. The reaction outside of France.
  1. Metternich's system in Austria.
    - a. Policy of "letting well enough alone."
    - b. Checks upon foreign communication.
    - c. Educational restrictions.
    - d. Censorship of the press.
  2. Metternich's influence outside of Austria.
    - a. German student organizations broken up.
    - b. The Carlsbad Resolutions.
- V. The revolutionary movement of 1820-21.
  1. Beginnings in Spain.
  2. Spread to Italy, Portugal, and Greece.
  3. Activity of the "Holy Alliance."
  4. Establishment of Greek independence.
- VI. France in the Revolution of 1830.
  1. Party strife under Louis XVIII.
  2. Sweeping reaction under Charles X.
- VII. The Revolution of 1830.
  1. The July Ordinances revoking the Charter of Louis XVIII.
  2. The uprising of July 28, 29, and 30.
  3. Louis Philippe made king.
- VIII. The times of Louis Philippe.
  1. Democratic character of the king.
  2. The Charter restored and liberalized.
  3. Reform retarded by the conservatism of Guizot.
- IX. The Orleanist monarchy overthrown in the Revolution of 1848.
  1. The rise of socialism.
  2. France becomes a republic.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How did the powers of Europe finally overthrow Napoleon? 2. Who succeeded Napoleon as ruler of France and how? 3. What was the nature of the period from 1814 to 1850? 4. What was the character of the Congress of Vienna? 5. What territorial arrangements did it make? 6. What did the Congress intend to do? 7. Describe Louis XVIII's charter. 8. How did this charter affect the French people as a whole? 9. What dangers made the people welcome Napoleon back? 10. Give instances showing the widespread reaction after the Congress of Vienna. 11. Describe the policy of Metternich. 12. How was it carried out in Austria? 13. How did Metternich crush the liberal spirit in Germany? 14. How long did the German "Federation" last? What does this show? 15. What countries of Europe were affected by the Revolution of 1820? 16. What was the Holy Alliance and what did it accomplish? 17. Why did Greece secure her freedom at this time? 18. How did Charles X strive to control public opinion? 19. What was the result? 20. What change was wrought in the government of France by the Revolution of 1830? 21. Why were reform movements thwarted during the reign of Louis Philippe? 22. What were the doctrines of the socialists at this time? 23. What brought about the Revolu-

tion of 1848? 24. What form of government was set up?

## SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Why does no Louis XVII appear in the list of French kings? 2. What is meant by the "Hundred Days"? 3. What famous episode in earlier German history did the student celebration at Wartburg castle in 1817 commemorate? 4. What were the circumstances of the revolt of the Spanish-American colonies? 5. What is meant by a "neutralized" state? Give two examples.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

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## Hanover, Hildesheim, Brunswick

By Clara M. Stearns

**W**HEN Thackeray amused the American public in 1852-3 with his entertaining portrayals of court life and social conditions under the four Georges, he perpetuated his esthetic impressions of Hanover in the expression, "That ugly cradle in which our Georges were nursed," and then sent the cradle to the attic by saying, "The old town of Hanover must look still pretty much as in the time when George Louis left it."

In spite, however, of Thackeray's slighting remarks the summer traveler can spend a surprisingly interesting day in this typical German city that is lacking in the allurements of a summer opera or of a picture gallery. Hanover is distinct in character from cosmopolitan Berlin, Anglo-Americanized Dresden, and art-fostering Munich. Notwithstanding English influence in the eighteenth century, French in the first half of the nineteenth, and the almost overpowering Prussian influence of the last half of the nineteenth, the close observer of towns marks at once the sturdy, conservative North German character of its citizens that gives a dis-

tinct individuality to the town. But it is no longer the town of Thackeray's day; for what the century and a half preceding the satirist's visit had left virtually undisturbed, the next half century has almost obliterated. The signs of age and ugliness, so distasteful to him, have been absorbed in the growth that has come from infusion into the body politic of the blood of progress and the iron of industry. The droning old town of George the First's time, that lasted on until Thackeray's day, got a rough awakening in 1866 when it found its king an exile and the country of which it was the capital reduced to a province, to a mere item in Prussia's trust of German states. Ever since that fateful year Hanover has been so vigorously sloughing off the old and putting forth the new, that the searcher for the picturesque looking, for narrow, crooked streets and high gabled houses would better turn aside to Hildesheim, Brunswick or "Hamlintown."

The city divides naturally into Herrenhausen, the suburban home of the Georges; the old town which merges into the manufacturing suburb of Linden; and

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This is the third of a series of nine articles entitled "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany." The complete list in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

The Belgium of Charles the Bold and Philip II,  
by Clare de Graffenried (September).

Twentieth Century Belgium, by Clare de Graffenried (October).

Hanover, Hildesheim, Brunswick, by Clara M. Stearns (November).

What Berlin Offers, by Professor Otto Heller (December).

Hamburg, Keil and Lübeck, by Wolf von Schierbrand (January).

Munich: the City on the Isar, by N. Hudson Moore (February).

Weimar, by Prof. Robert W. Deering (March).  
University Life (April).

Town and Country Byways, by Clara M. Stearns (May).



ROYAL THEATER, HANOVER

the new town which has grown up in place of and around about the old town.

The summer palace of Herrenhausen with its garden of one hundred and twenty acres lies two miles away from the city palace. The building itself is architecturally uninteresting; long and low, it stretches lazily about three sides of a grassy court, suggestive of the care-free existence of a race of rulers innocent of the strifes and struggles of an American president, or a twentieth century German emperor. Of the garden, laid out in the Versailles manner with prim beech hedges, geometrical flower-beds, fountains and statuary everywhere, Thackeray's description is as true as it was fifty years ago, as true as though written two hundred years ago. Here, half hidden among hedges and trees, is an unique open-air theater. The tiers of stone seats, as well as the stage with its natural flies of beech hedge, are all can-

opied by stately lindens. Here too among lesser of its kind is one of the highest fountains in Europe, capable of a leap of two hundred and twenty-two feet. It was in this garden that Leibnitz walked and talked with the Electress Sophia, mother of George I and maternal grandmother of Frederick the Great, whom Thackeray called "one of the handsomest, the most cheerful, sensible, shrewd and accomplished of women." It was here that she found respite from the dullness and grossness of her husband, Duke Ernest Augustus, in philosophical conversation with Leibnitz, and it was here that she fell down dead "in her last walk" on the spot now marked by a beautiful statue.

Close by is the "Berggarten," originally the royal kitchen garden, now a botanical plaything kept up by the princely liberality of its owner, the Duke of Cumberland, who would have been George VI of Hanover had not the events of '66 exiled



HERRENHAUSER ALLEE, HANOVER



OPEN-AIR THEATER IN HERRENHAUSEN GARDEN, HANOVER



NEW BLACK BEAR RESTAURANT, HANOVER  
Modern style building.



MODERN HOUSE IN OLD SAXON STYLE, HANOVER

him to Austria. This garden of the uncrowned king shelters "Paradise," wherein are grouped hundreds of azalias, from the tiny dwarf to the full-sized shrub, ranging in color from pure white through pale yellows and flame colors to deep rose. Rhododendrons, magnolias and almond trees add their share of fleeting beauty to this illusory Paradise.

From country seat to town one drives between two large parks wherein the French artificiality of Herrenhausen, with its many secretive hedges suggestive of "Diamond Necklace Affairs," gives place to the generous hospitality of view of an English park. The way leads down the Herrenhauser Allée, the finest avenue of lindens in the world, possessed of all the poetic beauty which "Unter den Linden" suggests. But these trees are as Apollos to Mimes in comparison with those grimy, stunted phantoms of trees, that gave their name and sacrificed their beauty to the famous Berlin street. No one but Carlyle seems ever to have found this avenue "disappointing."

In the old town one can see the point on the Leine river from which tradition derives the name of the town; it was a fording place where six highways met on a high bank—*Hohen Ufer*—*Han-nó-ver* as the Germans say. At this point there still stands a fourteenth century remnant of the now vanished town wall; a massive gray stone tower with an occasional loophole. Like a grim sentinel it has guarded

for six centuries the cradle of the town. Of other ancient remains the most interesting is, perhaps, a patrician stone house of the seventeenth century Renaissance. Its most decorative feature is an oriel bearing a sculptured frieze between the tiers of windows, whereon sixteen reliefs picture the principal Bible stories from Adam to the Apostles. This is the house in which Leibnitz lived and died, and where one can still see his study and his curious old desk. Another old building,



LEIBNITZ' HOUSE, HANOVER .

more quaint than beautiful, is the St. Nicholas Chapel which is as severe looking as four straight walls, unbroken except by the simplest form of door and window, and a red tile roof, that slopes from the ridge pole to the four sides, can make it. Nothing breaks the uncompro-



PROVINCIAL MUSEUM IN THE MARSH PARK, HANOVER

mising severity of the exterior but its curious incrustation of memorial tablets, each one of which is a study in medieval theology. These buildings are chief among the few remaining relics of that town over which George I wept when he reluctantly set forth to mount the throne of Great Britain, France and Ireland. Here he left his heart and here he returned as often as he could leave England to itself and to Walpole. It was here in the garden at Herrenhausen—so local history recites—that the patriotic nightingales ceased singing for the year on that night when their king, returning to his beloved Hanover, held that ghastly race with death, in which death won at Osnabrück.

As a link between the good old times and the good new times, one building alone remains in use and unchanged in function—the town palace. It is not a beautiful building, since it conforms closely to the model common to German palaces, with its three monotonous rows of windows, topped by a mansard roof, the whole effect stolid and austere. But it was here that royalty first got its foothold, here the Hanoverian kings resided, and here the Emperor has his headquarters when he pays one of his flying visits. But

the old palace, the seat and the symbol of power, has been forced to “right about face;” it no longer marks the limit of the city on the west, since a new art and municipal government center has sprung up in its rear. For the wide, open marsh, long time the summer pasturage of the town herds, the winter rendezvous of skating belles and beaus, has been transformed, within the last three years, into a park and surrounded by a group of artistic and dignified buildings: the Kestner Museum, the Provincial Museum, the City Hall, and the headquarters of the Municipal Building Commission.

The twentieth century thus brings art

OLD WATCH TOWER AND COFFEE HOUSE,  
HANOVER



and authority together for a focal point, whereas in the seventeenth, the palace, the seat of power, was the natural center of a town, and in the first half of the nineteenth, this honored position was here conceded to the royal theater. Incredible as it may sound to an American the streets of the new town as laid out in 1834 were arranged with reference to the theater. Where at that time a windmill flung its flapping arms to the breeze, there has stood, since 1852, one of the best proportioned and most impressive buildings of its kind in Germany. Its location, in a triangle formed by three principal business streets, is admirably commanding for so good an example of the antique Renaissance. In structure as well as in purpose it serves as a constant incentive to interests beyond the purely commercial. For, in the days when the last king, George V, had this theater in his budget its reputation was second to none but Weimar in the high standard of its dramatic representations, while surpassing that celebrated stage in operatic performances. It was in Hanover that the great tenor Albert Nieman was discovered in the person of a blacksmith, and trained at the king's cost for the king's theater. There was a time too when von Bulow directed the orchestra in which Joachim was first violin.

But since '66 Munich, Dresden and Berlin have outranked Hanover in the number and magnitude of their operatic stars.

Not far from the theater, for it is a compact city that has grown from 27,500

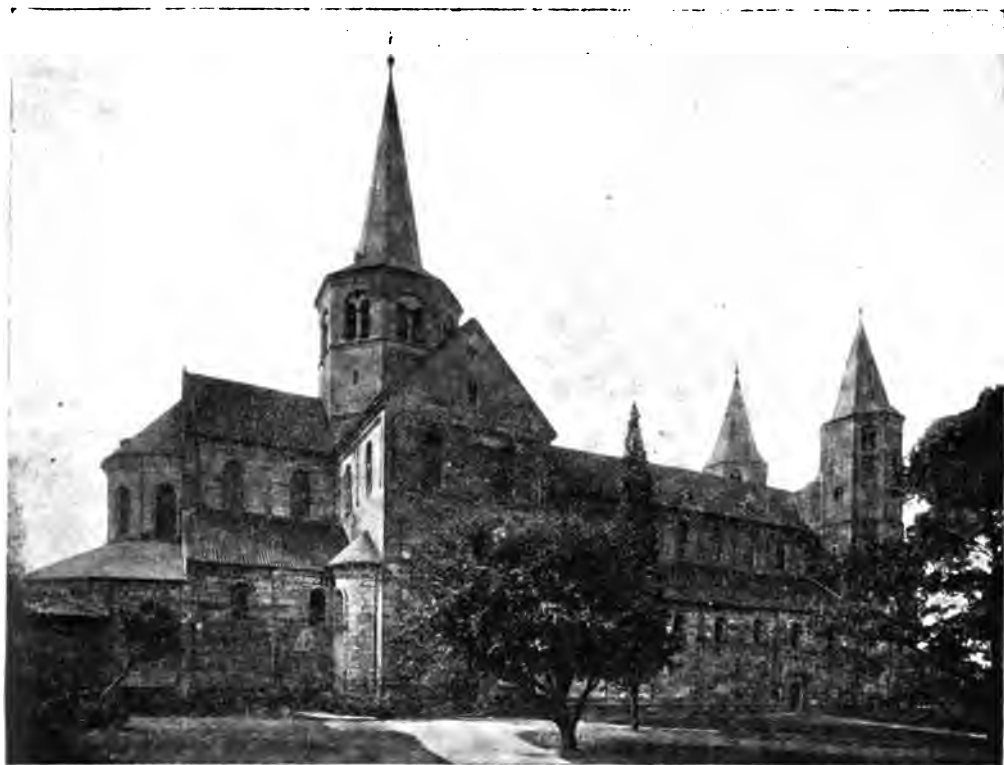
inhabitants in 1837 to 260,000 in 1900, one comes into beautiful residence streets built up in the Italian villa style with their proper rose gardens and vined pergolas, or it may be with houses adapted from old Saxon architecture where wooden beams and panel work are much in evidence and the wooden horse heads crowning the gables give a delightful touch of outlived superstition. Occasionally one finds a house built in revival of the old Nuremberg stucco fronts with color decoration. Just at present the taste is strong for simple lines and little deco-



BUTCHERS' GUILD ON MARKTPLATZ, HILDESHEIM

ration. In the beautiful Hohenzollernstrasse that faces the town forest, the Eilenriede is the house of the late Cont Waldersee.

This Eilenriede is a picturesque feature



ST. GODEHARD'S CHURCH, HILDESHEIM

of the town that is crowding hard against it. Through its six hundred acres, more or less densely wooded, there wind innumerable drives, foot, bridle and bicycle paths. In the early history of the town lookouts were built here and there on the edges of the forest, and wardens were stationed in them for the protection of woods, fields and highways. Some of these old tower lookouts are still standing; at other points only the name is perpetuated. In each case, however, the old site is marked by more or less attractive beer and coffee gardens—popular afternoon family resorts. Whether or not a good military band plays, hundreds of families or friendly groups gather about the small tables for chat and coffee. The children and nurse maids go to the adjoining playground, while the women sit with their embroidery, crochet work or knitting and enjoy the fresh air and their group of intimates. What would stupid, thrifty George III say to this universal

coffee drinking in his realm? Since he strictly forbade the sale of coffee in villages, for fear it might injure the health of his sturdy Saxons, affect industry and public happiness, besides lessening the production of beer, and so divert large sums of money from the country, "whereby a noticeable disadvantage to general prosperity would accrue."

Scattered through the town are some good bronze statues, and some fascinating fountains, among them the goose girl; a graceful, slender figure at whose apron a goose is stubbornly pulling while she playfully threatens him with a switch. At the Gutenberg fountain the benign Gutenberg stretches a civilizing hand over four youthful figures—a comely young African, a lithe young Indian, a supple young Japanese, and a sturdy young European.

In no other city of Europe and in none of America have I seen flowers made so generous a factor in the general beautification. Here they are not set aside in

parks, but the beds are lavishly scattered about the railroad station, the theater, the museums, in open squares; in fact wherever at a junction of streets there is space for a protected flower bed, there a flower oasis springs up in the waste of asphalt or cobblestones.

Since the journey to and from Hanover is no such serious matter as in the seventeenth century, when the traveler took two days to go from Hanover to Hamlen—now half that many hours—and this only after making his will and partaking of the communion, let the traveler decide for himself if Hanover is not one of the cleanest as well as one of the pleasantest cities of the empire. He will then, I think, agree that the birthplace of the Schlegels, the Herschels and good Queen Louise of Prussia no longer deserves to be branded "The ugly cradle of the Georges."

"In all Saxony there is no town equal to Hildesheim in strength and beauty," wrote Thangmar, priest, librarian and director of the then celebrated cathedral school at Hildesheim in the year 1001. This was no partial judgment of the place which was, in the tenth and eleventh centuries, the center for North German art, and which is still rich in evidences of architectural taste and skill existant from that time to the middle of the sixteenth century.

If there be any truth in the legend Hildesheim was founded in 815 by Louis the Pious. The story runs that he was hunting here in the great forest when

his chaplain said mass. The following day the priest discovered that the sacred relics of the Virgin, which he had hung on the tree to mark the altar, had been forgotten. Emperor and suite returned and found the relics unharmed—but the tree refused to give them up. The king recognizing a divine purpose built here a chapel to the Virgin, and established here a bishopric; upon this followed a cathedral with its fortified close; then the town gradually grew up as the walls were extended to shelter those who had sought



INTERIOR OF THE CATHEDRAL, HILDESHEIM

the protecting shadows of the sanctuary. To this churchly origin of the town is due its peculiar growth and history down to the Reformation. For, while churches and cloisters multiplied on the one hand, there was the other and equally powerful development of commerce and of burgher independence.

The prince-bishops became worldly minded, the cathedral chapter rich with endowments—at one time it held two hundred and sixty-two villages besides fields, meadows, game preserves, mills, vineyards and estates—while the town gained privileges, such as coinage and the right to admit Jews, then became a strong member of the Hansa, and gradually loosed the bishop's hold until finally it acknowledged no overlord but the emperor. In its political relations to bishops and emperors Hildesheim is unique in German history. Its annals are made up of feuds without and within. Three times it happened that the See was claimed by two bishops—one the choice of the chapter, the other of the Pope. At times the bishop and his chapter were at variance, then chapter and town, then town and bishop, or bishop and neighboring bishops—once a bishop was brought in as part of the booty. Sometimes the town was at variance with itself—it consisted of three distinct towns—or with neighboring towns, or knights with bishops. The burghers fought for their bishop as well as against him: sometimes he was a warrior bishop who made his entry not in vestments but in shining coat-of-mail. To

Bishop Henry II, 1310, whom the townspeople thought effeminate, they refused allegiance. By turning the river Innerste away from the town and by building his palace without the walls he brought his subjects to terms. In 1482 Bishop Barthold thought to pay his debts by taxing

beer. Saxon and Westphalian princes supported the bishop, but Brunswick and Goslar, backed by the Hansa, helped on the side of municipal rights until they were won. Hildesheim grew so sensitive to infringement of these rights that an episcopal tax collector lost his head straightway for once collecting from a burgher an unjust bridge toll. For destroying the house of an unpopular canon the town was put under episcopal ban and made to furnish a twenty pound candle for the five Maria feast days. Bishop John IV in the



HOUSE ON THE ANDREASPLATZ, HILDESHEIM

sixteenth century refused to endure the long standing abuse of episcopal hospitality by the so called "chapter nobles"; from them he therefore earned the name "Jack Lean Cabbage," but his burghers impoverished themselves in his cause when he undertook to redeem the episcopal

estates long held in pawn by these same nobles. This was the beginning of the fatal "Cathedral Feud," in which lands and villages were ruthlessly devastated and for which Emperor and Pope in vain called a halt. This struggle as well as the Reformation and the Thirty Years' War, brought about Hildesheim's ecclesiastical ruin, as the decline of the Hansa its commercial disaster.

Through all these vicissitudes and from among the fifty bishops who served well or ill from 815 to the Reformation the name and works of one have come down to us with lasting value. Bernward, pupil



THE 1000 YEAR ROSEBUSH, CATHEDRAL,  
HILDESHEIM

of Thangmar, later the teacher of Otto III, was called in 993 to be the thirteenth bishop of Hildesheim. He came at a time when Saxons coveted holy relics; the neighboring Corvey had its wonder-working relics of St. Vitus; Paderborn its St. Liborius; Soest its St. Patroclus. Bernward brought to his bishopric, as a parting gift from his royal pupil, a splinter of the True Cross. For the enshrinement of this sacred relic, Bernward made

with his own hands, so says tradition, a cross of gold overwrought with filigree and beset with gems; in the center under the crystal was the relic. For the housing of this treasure he built the church of St. Michael, the Michaelis Kirche.

In the significant year 1000 A. D. Bernward visited Rome where he gained fresh impulse for the cultivation of art in the barbarous North. The idea of the Trajan's Column he consecrated to a Christ Column; a "bronze Bible" of twenty-four scenes from the life of Christ. The carved doors of St. Sabina suggested bronze cathedral doors, bearing eight Old Testament scenes illustrative of man's creation and fall contrasted with eight New Testament subjects bearing on man's redemption. Both of these works he molded at his workshop in Hildesheim four hundred and fifty years before Peter Vis-



BERNWARD'S CHALICE AND PATERN, HILDESHEIM

cher was working in bronze at Nuremberg, and two hundred and fifty years before the Baptistery gates were cast.

The Cathedral itself bears the impress of a thousand years. Its crypt claims to be the Virgin Chapel of Louis the Pious, while its west front was rebuilt only half a century ago. The body of the church, as a three aisled basilica, dates from 1055-61, while the Gothic side chapels and the small central dome overlaid with gold date from the end of the fourteenth century. In the silent cloister court an ancient rosebush called the Thousand Year Rosebush of Hildesheim, climbs up the apse wall. Tradition converted this into Louis' Tree, but the scientific critic concedes it only half such a lifetime. Certain it is that for at least five hundred summers it has gently shed its white petals over sleeping bishops while without the close feuds waxed and waned.

Of other churches St. Michael of the eleventh century, with a rarely curious flat wooden ceiling of the twelfth century, bearing the painting of the "Stem of Jesse," and the St. Godehard church of the twelfth century are choice examples of German Romanesque, though with Gothic additions.

But Hildesheim is not all churches and cloisters; for its quibbling and quarreling, fasting and praying burghers have left as their monuments many rarely fine timber houses, chiefly of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Carpenter and wood-carver, painter and poet shared in their making. In ornateness they range from severe simplicity to the rich decoration of the Knochenhaueramthaus, house of the Butchers' Guild—acknowledged to be the finest timber house in all Germany (an excellent model is in the Metropolitan Museum, New York). There is a wealth of carving, color and sentiment in the friezes which divide the stones. There is a wide range of decorative motives: coats of arms, animals, genre scenes, muses, virtues, heroes, deities, bishops, apostles,



BERNWARD'S CHRIST COLUMN — THE  
"BRONZE BIBLE"

saints, Bible quotations and aphorisms in German and Latin—"Many a one is poor with great possessions and many a



RATHAUS, HILDESHEIM



INTERIOR OF RATHAUS, HILDESHEIM





OLD GOTHIC RATHAUS AND MARKTPLATZ BRUNSWICK



BURG DANKWARDERODE, BRUNSWICK, WITH STATUE OF LION IN FOREGROUND



one is rich in poverty." On the Grocers' Guild House:

"If you weigh right and just,  
Be rich and blest you must."

The town center was and still is, the town hall—the Rathaus, and the open market square before it. Around the Platz stands some of the most patrician houses. Today they look down upon nothing more serious than the barterings and bickerings of *Marktfrauen* and *Hausfrauen*, but in the old days they were witnesses of comedies and tragedies. Here punishments were meted out, women who quarreled with each other were set forth for public ridicule in a double cage, or in red stocks on which snarling cats were painted. Here, at the corner of the Baker Guild Houses floggings were dealt out and the ears of evil-doers hung up. Here the doomed man on his way to execution was liberated if a respectable woman stepped forth and offered to marry him. At Whitsuntide the doorway of the old Rathaus was decorated with flowers and birch boughs, while council and cathedral nobles came in solemn procession bringing from the Cathedral the most sacred relics of the Virgin Patroness of the town. Here in the Marktplatz curious Whitsuntide games were long kept up. Here too passion plays were given. Here the townsmen were assembled before starting out to do battle for themselves or their bishops. Here in 1532 a hundred and fifty citizens, chiefly cloth weavers, demanded of the council the right to have a minister of the New Faith, for which they were exiled. Here in 1802 when the Hildesheim foundations were secularized the old grenadiers were lined up to hear their release from fealty to their prince-bishops. Here they laid down their arms but refused allegiance to Prussia until a period of imprisonment showed them their helplessness.

to Brunswick, and from Brunswick to Hanover, gives an obtuse angled triangle, the sides of which measured in terms of the express train are Hanover-Hildesheim, thirty-five minutes; Hildesheim-Brunswick, forty minutes; Hanover-Brunswick, fifty-three minutes. In spite of this proximity they are, beyond superficial likenesses, as dissimilar as though separated by mountain chains. Brunswick—"Braunschweig" to the Germans—possesses more of that covetable quality know as "*Gemüthlichkeit*"—insufficiently translated as "unpretentious comfort." While Hanover fairly throbs with progress, and Hildesheim is delectable as a medieval museum, the old and the new in Brunswick jog along tolerantly together. My room at the hotel could blaze at one moment with the glare of its three electric lights, and the next be filled with a mysterious half darkness, pale shadows and the little yellow gleam of the stearin candle. There on one side stood the tiled stove, built in with the house and reaching to the ceiling, looking



Running straight lines on the map from Hanover to Hildesheim, from Hildesheim

HOUSE WITH FAN MOTIVE DECORATIONS,  
BRUNSWICK



CHURCH OF ST. CATHERINE ON THE HAGENMARKT, BRUNSWICK

down in calm whiteness upon the usurping radiator. Out in the Bohlweg, the Fifth Avenue of Brunswick, almost at the palace gates, the shops of court jeweler and court sausage maker touched elbows. The strings of snowy pearls in one window and the strings of rosy sausages in the other were, each in their way, equally fit to set before a king! Brunswick sausages, plump and round; Brunswick asparagus, white and succulent; Brunswick gingerbread, firm and sweet; what German epicure does not know them?

Brunswick with its 126,000 inhabitants is, roughly speaking, three times as large as Hildesheim, about half as large as Hanover. Of two features of their little city the Brunswickers are especially proud—their “Anlagen” and their “Burg Dankwarderode.” Anlagen is the name given to the succession of small parks surrounding the town on the site of the old walls. They

lie strung along the shining waters of the Oker, which divides below the town to circle it in the moat. The Dankwarderode is the old palace of Henry the Lion built in the twelfth century. Carefully restored in the year 1884, it is probably, in purity of style and in richness of interior decoration, the finest example of old secular Romanesque to be found in Germany. Before it stands the bronze lion set up by Duke Henry in 1166 as symbol of his power. This is the same Henry the Lion who was friend, then foe of Frederick Barbarossa; the same who subdued the Wends and other Slavic tribes in what is now Mecklenburg and Pomerania, and brought in Christianity and Saxon culture by planting Saxon colonies; the same who by right of conquest and inheritance at one time held sway from the Baltic to the Mediterranean; who is accounted the founder of Lübeck and of Munich; and whose inordinate ambition



LESSING'S HOUSE, WOLFENBÜTTEL  
With new library in the background.

and unbounded pride finally caused his downfall. Four times he defied the imperial summons to answer before the Diet to the long list of charges brought against him by his Saxon and Slavic vassals. Stripped of all his possessions and twice banished to England, it was only by the intervention of the Pope that he received back his Lüneburg-Brunswick duchy—to die here at his Dankwarderode broken in body and in pride after sixty-six years of life. The lion stands as the grim embodiment of Duke Henry's daring defiance, while he and his duchess Mathilda, daughter of Henry II of England, rest before the altar of the Cathedral, which he built on his return in 1171 from the Holy Land.

All the old Brunswick churches show the change from Romanesque to Gothic; with their lofty twin towers they overshadow the near streets with their maze of red roofs, or else they stand out in fine relief on an open square in such way as to give an impression of grandeur. The old houses are much less interesting than

those of Hildesheim, but they have their own peculiar features. Instead of the gable end turning to the street, it is here the long side of the roof, often broken by dormer windows. The friezes are here much simpler; chiefly limited to certain toothed and fan shaped designs; Latin quotations are wanting, Bible quotations rare.

Among the public buildings the "Alte-wage" and the old Rathaus are of rare beauty. The "Alte-wage," or Old Scales, stands as gate of entry to the broad street known as the Wollmarkt. Wagons bringing wool to market are weighed while they drive through the north end of the building. While serving its material end as weighing and warehouse it is also a delight to the eye, for, though built in 1534, every part is still kept in perfect condition. The Alte-wage, with its red roof broken by pert little turret topped windows, and its warm cream-colored walls, which heighten the rich beauty of the friezes with their graceful carved borders, worked up in deep red, brown and

blue and picked out in gold, makes a gem of color. The old Rathaus, first mentioned in 1253, rebuilt in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries and restored in the middle of the nineteenth, is peculiar in throwing its inner angle to the street, and in its two storied "Laube" or arcade. Since the middle of the fifteenth century each pillar has borne the statue of a prince and princess of the Welfs, Emperor Henry I, the Ottos I, II, III and IV, Henry the Lion, Dukes William and Otto the child of Lüneburg. This arcade with its statues and its light tracery in gray stone is a gem of form—not to be outranked by the particularly handsome new Rathaus which stands as symbol of growth of un-"pretentious comfort" in Brunswick.

Among the Dukes of Brunswick there have been patrons of art and of letters. Near the ducal palace stands the museum containing a fine collection of Dutch and Flemish masters. It was for one of these dukes that Lessing was librarian at Wolfenbüttel, seven miles from Brunswick. It was here that Lessing spent the few happy months of his married life. Brunswick has set up a worthy monument to him as it has to its great son Gauss—the greatest German mathematician. It still owes similar recognition to its other great son Spohr—the violinist and composer.

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What marked change has taken place in Hanover since Thackeray's time?
2. What are some of the attractions of the suburb of Herrenhausen?
3. What is the Herrenhäuser Allee?
4. How did the town of Hanover get its name?
5. Describe two of the typical old houses of the town.
6. What buildings have successively served as centers for the town at different periods?
7. What position has the theater occupied in Hanover?
8. What is the Eilenriede?
9. What famous people were born in Hanover?
10. What legend accounts for the founding of Hildesheim?
11. Describe its churchly difficulties.
12. Who was Bishop Bernward and for what is he remembered?
13. What special features mark the cathedral?
14. What striking scenes has the Rathaus square witnessed?
15. What general differences exist between Hanover, Hildesheim and Brunswick?
16. Who was Henry the Lion?
17. What characteristics have the old Brunswick churches?
18. What connection had Lessing with Brunswick?

#### SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Who was King of Hanover in 1866?
2. To what character in literature is the founder of the Kestner Museum related?
3. Explain the allusion "Apollos to Mimes."
4. Who was Leibnitz?
5. Who were the Herschels?
6. For what achievements is Gauss especially distinguished?
7. Who were the Schlegels?



OLD MUNICIPAL WEIGHING HOUSE, BRUNSWICK  
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## Haydn

By Thomas Whitney Surette

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**I**N the first article of this series—that on "Handel" in the October number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*—considerable stress was laid upon the two great schools of composition with which Handel's music is associated. The first of these schools found its greatest exponent in Bach, and had for its fundamental idea the expression of man's nature and feelings through the formal and somewhat stilted medium of the Fugue and kindred types. The second, reaching back to the Florentine Operatic Revolution (about 1600) was based on a more free vocal style: that form of writing which flourished in Italy (the land of the singer) and which finally resulted in the operatic aria of Handel's time with its excess of ornament and its subserviency to the singer.

Each of these schools was the natural expression of the time that produced them; they advanced the art of music greatly and in the case of the first mentioned—that of Bach—music of a profound universal type was created.

The limitations of the Fugue and of all other species of composition at that time were mainly due to a lack of freedom, which was caused to a large extent by the

absence of free harmonic progressions. A stiff progression of several *voices* did not admit of masses of colors (chords), so that the whole remained cold, unvivified. Someone has said, "What love is to life, color is to form"—a pertinent comparison.

The need of music, then, at the time Haydn appeared was that it should be free as to style, and should take its subjects from common life. A Burns was wanted to speak for the common people, to sing of familiar things simply and without pedantry.

It may seem something of an anomaly to include Haydn among German composers since he was an Austrian by birth and probably of Croatian (Slavic) ancestry, but he, nevertheless, plays an important part in the development of German music and, in spite of the undoubted Slavic origin of many of his melodies, his music as a whole, is German. A comparison of the mass of his compositions with those of a pure Slav composer will establish this beyond doubt. The Hungarian influence also may be observed in many of Haydn's pieces. He was born on the border of Austria and Hungary and doubtless had many opportunities in his boyhood of hearing Hungarian

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This is the third of a series of nine articles on "German Master Musicians." The complete list in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Bach (September), by William Armstrong.

Handel (October), Haydn (November), Mozart (December), Beethoven (January), Schubert (February), Schumann (March), by Thomas Whitney Surette.

Wagner (April), Brahms (May), by William Armstrong.

music, and he spent many years of his life on a Hungarian estate.

The reader is referred to one of the books on the list for biographical information. Groves' Dictionary, Vol. I, contains an excellent article on Haydn, and the chronological table given here will be of assistance in locating the chief events of his life. It should be noted, however, that Haydn sprang from the people—his father was a wheelwright, his mother had been a cook—and his whole attitude towards life was that of a simple child of nature. He never lost this simplicity even when courted by the world of titles and fashion, and even in his greatest symphonies is never pedantic.

It must also be noted that the status of the composer in the seventeenth century was not as high as it now is. Haydn, living at a petty court, had to wear a uniform (or livery) and consider himself a servant of Prince Esterhazy.

That he recognized the value of authority and obedience is evinced by his keen appreciation late in life of the benefit, as a part of his youthful education, of the many floggings he received. In his music there is hardly a touch of revolt: the idea of equality had not entered his mind; in fact the revolutionary principle was to lie dormant as far as music was concerned until after the advent of Beethoven.

Haydn's point of view was in a measure a new one. Music had been a thing of scientific rules before his time. On the foundation of polyphony composers had erected an imposing edifice, even shaping dance tunes to conform with the prevailing style, while the humble folk melodies were neglected as unworthy their attention. As has before been stated all great art rests on the common life and the beauty of Haydn's music lies largely in its revelation of the charm of simple things. He writes in the vernacular, the dialect, of his people—as Burns did—and we feel on listening to him no sense of awe, but rather that of homely familiarity. The message he brings to

us—music knowing no distinctions of language—is almost a universal one.

As an example of this let us examine for a moment the chief theme (melody) \*(1-8) of the \*\*first movement of Haydn's Pianoforte Sonata in D (No. 7 n \*\*\*Schirmer's edition) which the student should procure.

The opening measure suggests the Hungarian style by the grace note (small) at the beginning, and the trills which follow it in the first measure. The theme itself, as a whole, is simple, ingenious and straightforward without trace of introspection or pedantry. The little group of four notes, which occurs in the last measure, is characteristically happy



BORDERLAND OF AUSTRIA AND HUNGARY

and gay. As to the style, or manner of saying things, it will be at once noted that it is free, *i. e.*, melody and accompaniment without counterpoint. It will also be observed that this portion of the tune is brought to an end, as it were, on the last

\*Numbers in parentheses refer to measures, which should be numbered consecutively from beginning to end of each movement.

\*\*This movement may be had in the form of a pianola roll. See notice in September number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

\*\*\*The first volume of Haydn's Pianoforte Sonatas in Schirmer's Edition (containing ten Sonatas, may be had for 38 cents net, and the above Sonata alone for 15 cents net,

note, the four measures having the effect of a verse of poetry closing, say, with a semi-colon, and containing four lines, each line corresponding to a measure of the music. The whole effect is that of a bright and gay dance tune.

Here then we have a new kind of subject; this music is of the people—drawn from the common life. A new problem immediately presents itself, namely: how shall such themes be treated so as to make from them a long Sonata movement? No dependence can be placed on the old methods of counterpoint with its entrances of themes, etc., yet the music, to make any coherent effect, must be so organized and constructed as to produce a sense of unity.

In the Fugue the consistent and continuous use of one short theme gave coherence, the dance tunes of the period were short and needed no highly developed organism; vocal music, having the words to rely on, did not in general need to be so carefully arranged and thought out: so that, while this problem was not entirely new, it had to be solved at this juncture; a new path had to be cleared.

In the "Handel" article attention is called to the form of the aria "He Shall Feed His Flock," in which a first strain was given out, after which a second entered. This twofold form is to be found in much music before Haydn's time, but it has gradually given way before a more highly organized form in three parts. Numberless specimens of this latter form

exist in songs, marches, minuets, nocturnes and the like. A familiar example is the Bridal Chorus (Wedding March) from Lohengrin. The first strain of this extends for sixteen measures, the second part follows, twenty-four measures long, then the first is repeated. The whole may be expressed in the formula A. B. A.

The advantage of this arrangement over the two-part form (A. B.) is that the leading musical thought predominates, being given out at the beginning and end. The principle underlying this form is a fundamental one, and its successful application to pure music on a large scale was principally due to Haydn's initiative.

The preliminary experiments by various composers (Philip Emmanuel Bach, son of the great Bach, prepared the way for Haydn) and the influence of the other musical forms on the Sonata, must be left untouched here for lack of space. We must always keep in mind that art has its ancestry as human beings have theirs, and that anything living grows little by little.

Let it suffice here, then, to state that this three-fold form developed gradually by enlargement of its different parts until it reached dimensions sufficient for the *first movement* of long Sonatas and Symphonies. It is then called "Sonata Form," a misleading term since it only applies to this particular form and not to the Sonata as a whole. It is, however, sometimes used for the last movement as well. Its three stages of development are indicated by the following diagrams:

#### FOLK-SONG TYPE

A.	B.	A.
Melodic phrase in tonic key.	Contrasting melodic phrase in some key other than the tonic; sometimes in the same key as the first phrase.	Repetition of first melodic phrase in tonic.

The dots indicate that the first section (A) and the last two sections together (B, A) are to be repeated. As an example of this simple three-part form the melody of the old song "The Year of Bray" is appended (p. 249).

#### EARLY SONATA TYPE

A.	B.	A.
I. First Subject (theme) in tonic.	New Episodes in key or keys other than the tonic.	I. First Subject in tonic.
II. Second Subject in related key.		II. Second Subject in tonic.

An example of this type may be studied in Hadow's "Sonata Form" pp. 30-31. The whole of chapter IV of this valuable book should be read if possible.

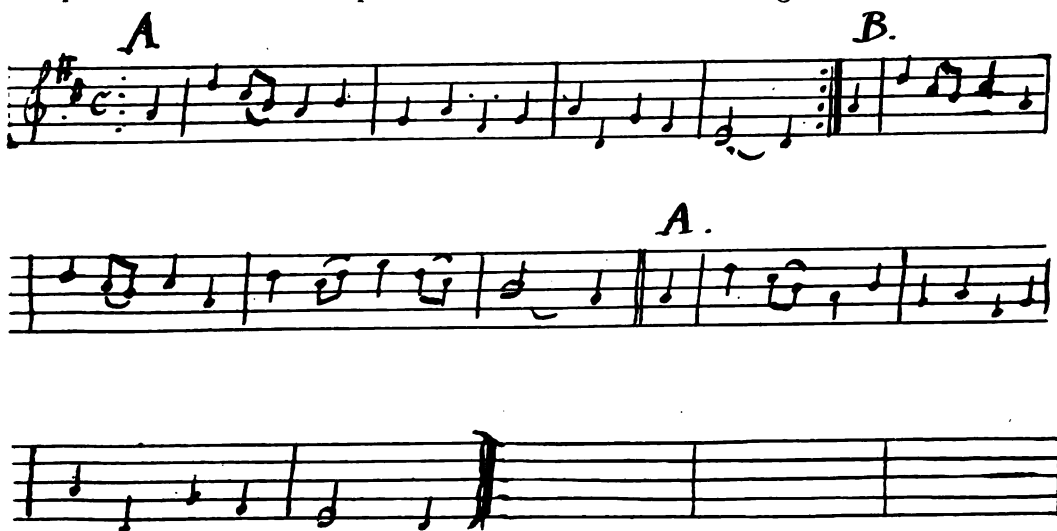
## "SONATA FORM"

A. Exposition, or Statement.	B. Development, or Discussion, usually called "Free Fan- tasia."	A. Recapitulation, or coda.
I. First Subject (theme) in tonic key. II. Transition or Episode modulating to related key. III. Second Subject in re- lated key.	Section of free modulation, consisting largely of treat- ment of material in first part (A); sometimes containing new Episode.	I. First Subject in tonic. II. Transition altered so as to lead back to tonic. III. Second Subject in tonic. IV. Coda.

A comparison of these three diagrams will reward the observing student. The first presents two phases complementary to each other, but more or less distinct entities. The second presents greater variety in the middle part, but lacks that stoutly-knit organism which characterizes the third, where the middle part (B) directly bears upon the principal subject matter of the movement.

If these technical matters seem to the reader unnecessary we must beg for patience. Let us repeat here that all this is preparatory to the study of the more intricate and highly developed works of Mozart and Beethoven, and let us remember that a symphony is a logical thing where every note bears relation to every other and nothing is haphazard, and that anything like a complete appreciation of such a work must include a perception of these relationships.

It is true that the average person who is quite capable of following the working out of an idea in a book or play, is incapable of making any sense at all out of the process in music. Yet a Sonata or Symphony is like a novel or a sermon in many ways. Glance at the last diagram; in the first column we find our characters, our leading ideas, in the second the development of them much as a novelist develops his plot or a preacher the subject of his sermon; in the third part we see the *dénouement*. Now ask yourself frankly if, in listening to much so-called "classical" music you have not found yourself unable to understand a large portion of it. Did it not seem confused and aimless? Not a note of it was so, but you enjoyed only the tunes; you were in about that stage of appreciation which sees in a great novel merely a story; which skims over the illuminating observations on life,



FROM "THE VICAR OF BRAY"  
Showing three-part form.





JOSEPH HAYDN

## CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

1731	Haydn born at Rohrau, Austria.	1779	"Farewell" Symphony composed.
1740	Entered St. Stephens Choir, Vienna.	1780-90	Composed Operas, Quartets and Symphonies, "Seven words of our Savior on the Cross."
1748	Leaves choir, and has to make his own way.	1790	Prince Esterhazy died.
1752	Writes music for a Magic Farce successfully produced in various cities.	1791	Visit to London. Degree at Oxford.
1755	First Quartet composed.	1792	Returned to Vienna through Bonn. Met Beethoven, who afterwards comes to Vienna and takes lessons of Haydn.
1759	Appointed Music Director to the Bohemian Count Ferdinand.	1794	Second visit to London.
1760	Married.	1795	Return to Vienna.
1761	Appointed under Kapellmeister at Prince Esterhazy's Hungarian Estate.	1797	Austrian National Hymn.
1766	Appointed Kapellmeister.	1798	The "Creation."
1769	Performance of one of his operas in Vienna.	1799	The "Seasons."
		1809	Died in Vienna.

the exquisite charm of description, the keen by-play, the irony—the whole world of fancy which surrounds the incidents. All these qualities exist, in a less definite form, in music, and our purpose is to lead you to appreciate them—to teach you to listen logically.

To return to the *Haydn Sonata*; the three divisions are as follows:

A. As far as double-bar, forty measures. (The Schirmer edition has the various themes, episodes, etc., marked.) The eight measures before the closing theme (coda) are discursive, not bearing pointedly on the subject matter. The Sonatas of this period are full of such conventional passages which accord with the state of piano playing and the atmosphere of the *Salon*.

B. The Free Fantasia begins with a discussion of theme I [compare (41) with (1)] and the first four notes will be found repeated in the left hand during the first six measures (41-46) after which the discussion becomes less pointed and we hear many conventional figures like those referred to in A. This is a weakness since nothing should be discursive in any work of art.

A. The third part begins at (61); the first theme is somewhat extended (a rather unusual process usually reversed by Haydn, since this chief idea should be given greatest prominence at the very beginning of the Sonata in order to fix it in the mind). The same episode follows after which the second subject enters in tonic key, [compare (17-18) with (80-81)], followed as before, by the coda.

In the slow movement (*Larghetto*) we find something of the old formality in the figures (rapid notes) in the first few measures, and in the improvisation-like quality of the music, with its irregular number of measures (1-9). The shortness of this movement also gives it the character of an improvised interlude between the two chief movements. So we have here a three movement sonata of which the first movement is in "Sonata Form" as usual,

while the second provides the necessary contrast with the gaiety of the other two. The third movement serves for a question at the close of this article.

Haydn's Croatian ancestry has been the subject of recent investigation and may be studied in Hadow's "A Croatian Composer." The best example of his use of a Croatian tune is to be found in the famous



HAYDN'S BIRTHPLACE

Austrian Hymn (pages 65-72 of Hadow's book), and the author of that interesting volume of investigation has plainly indicated the sources Haydn went to for his material for the famous piece.

This melody was afterwards used as the theme of the slow movement of the well-known "Emperor" string quartet.

Many of Haydn's symphonic themes came from popular songs and his music, as a whole, is nearer the common stock than that of any other great composer before or since. A journey through Croatia, Bosnia and Dalmatia, made by the writer a few years ago, revealed to him a more or less common stock of musical idiom, most of which is still pure. Croatia remains to this day an isolated and simple country, clinging tenaciously to its old customs, dress and habits, and to its idioms of language and of music.

A further examination of Haydn's music should be made by the student. The third Sonata in the Schirmer volume

\*The Emperor Quartet may be had in the form of pianola rolls, and in miniature score (price of score 35 cents).

is a characteristic one and an analysis of its first movement may be made with the help of the annotations on the music and with the diagram on page 249. Or possibly a \*Symphony may be played, four hands on the piano. All Haydn's more famous Symphonies contain delightfully tuneful music and the development of his ideas in them is usually ingenious and simple.

Of the many other benefits the development of music received at the hands of this great master space does not permit us to write. The oratorio of "The Creation," if available, would furnish an interesting field of study; the Aria "With verdure clad," with its exquisite freshness and simplicity; the many charmingly simple attempts at realism, more ingenious even than Handel's; the great passage at "Let there be light;" all these testify to Haydn's genius.

In almost every department of music Haydn's influence is felt. He created the string-quartet; he is called "The Father of the Symphony;" he developed the resources of the orchestra, using the different groups of instruments individually instead of having them play the same phrases an octave above or below.

\*The best known symphonies of Haydn are published separately for four hands; price, in Peters or similar editions, 50 cents each.

To him we owe a great debt of gratitude for having always been sane, cheerful and courageous; for having shown how much beauty there is in humble things; for having brought music out of a false heaven down to a real earth wherein its roots belong and from which it can flourish. The example of his life was good; he was deeply religious and had that simple, trusting faith not common in these present days of speculation and inquiry; he was kindly, thinking of others rather than of himself, and the whole sum of him—character, work and all—is chiefly good.

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are the chief differences between Handel's and Haydn's music? 2. From what general source does the music of the last movement of Haydn's sonata (No. 7 in the Schirmer edition) come? 3. What differences do you note between the structure of the first and last movements of that sonata? 4. Make a diagram for the last movement like that on page 249. 5. What effect did his English experiences have on Haydn?

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AUBER'S PIANO  
About the year 1800.

# Civic Lessons From Europe

## Forestry in Germany

By Raphael G. Zon

Of the United States Bureau of Forestry.

THE high development which forestry has reached in Germany is by no means the result only of the ingenuity and foresight of German foresters. Like any other industry the art of raising and caring for its forests is the direct and logical result of the economic conditions of a country. More than a century and a half ago Germany was forced to adopt conservative methods in the utilization of her woods, whose depleted condition was threatening her with a wood famine. At that time of inadequate means of transportation the use of coal was necessarily limited and the only fuel was wood, which was not yet an article of international trade, as it has now become. It was, therefore, keenly felt that the devastated forests—the inheritance of the seventeenth century with its Thirty Years' War and the following troublous times—were unable to meet the increasing demand upon them by the rapidly growing industries and population. This fear of a fuel famine, with its high prices, drew attention to the forests and led to the first attempts to regulate their exploitation, just as in our own country the gradual exhaustion of the timber supply, manifesting itself in advanced prices and threatening with ruin the many industries dependent upon wood, awakens an interest in the preservation and more economic use of our forests. What Germany lived through more than a century ago, we begin to experience now.

Though the development of railroads and the increased output of coal and iron mines and quarries enabled coal to displace wood as fuel and stone and iron to be substituted for wood in construction to a considerable extent, the consumption of wood has not only not diminished, but, on the contrary, it has increased in the same proportion as the consumption of coal. The growth of civilization, with its increased wants, opened new fields for the use of wood, and now Germany with her almost perfect forest management is no longer able to supply with wood even her own home market. Since 1863 Germany has been a wood-importing country, paying over \$70,000,000 last year for wood in excess of her exports, an addition of 25 per cent to her home crop. The consumption of log material has increased from 12 cubic feet per capita in 1886-90 to 19 cubic feet at present, or over 50 per cent in the last 15 years. At the present rate of development of the German Empire it is natural to expect a still greater increase in the demand for wood, which accounts for the anxiety to increase the forest area by planting the waste lands, raising the productive capacity of the forests, and improving the quality of the timber.

To fully understand the reasons for the success of forestry in Germany we must turn to the timber prices, the barometer of the demand and supply. The high prices for sawlogs, together with the ready market for even branchwood, ac-

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This is the third of a series of articles on "Civic Lessons from Europe." A partial list is as follows:

Street Decoration, by Milo Roy Maltbie (September).

La Maison du Peuple, a Belgian Coöperative Business, by Mary Rankin Cranston (October).

Forestry in Germany, by Raphael G. Zon (November).

Coöperative Industries, by Mary Rankin Cranston. (December).

Public Playgrounds, by H. S. Curtis (January).



COMMUNAL FOREST WITH THE FORESTERS' HOUSE TO THE LEFT  
AND A HOTEL TO THE RIGHT

Courtesy of the Bureau of Forestry, United States Department of Agriculture.

count to a great extent for the economy and care with which the Germans treat their forests, features particularly impressive for the American traveler, who is accustomed at home to see all natural resources exploited without regard to the needs of the future. While in the United States the stumpage price for the southern pines ranges between 50 cents and \$2.50 per thousand board feet, in Germany the same amount of Scotch Pine standing anywhere in the woods of the Grand Duchy of Hesse commands from \$35 to \$45. White Oak stumpage of the best quality can be bought in this country for \$5.00 a thousand board feet; in Germany \$50 to \$75 is paid for White Oak no better than hundreds of logs which are cut every year in the Mississippi Valley. Many oak trees which the farmers in Texas sell to the stave makers for \$1.00 each, would be worth from \$125 to \$150 in Eastern Bavaria, and instances are known when

oak logs 40 feet long and 32 inches in diameter at the butt brought \$220 at an auction sale, the customary way of selling wood in Germany. In the Black Forest, which is far from markets and has a very sparse population, and where prices are therefore the lowest, Spruce and Silver Fir of the best quality bring \$17 a thousand board feet, and the poorest quality \$10, while in Maine or the Adirondacks Spruce is worth on the stump from \$2.50 to \$4.00. In this country Beech has scarcely any value; in the Spessart a Beech tree 24 inches in diameter breasthigh will sell for \$12 and an acre of Beech forest yields \$720, while one of Oak will bring \$2,340. These high prices for timber in Germany are largely due to the remarkably good means of transportation afforded by the forest and public roads. The effect of roads upon the price of timber may be readily observed in this country. While fine timber in a remote and

inaccessible locality has at present no value, the same timber within easy reach of a mill or railroad commands a fair price. The German foresters anticipate still greater revenues from their forests when all the proposed roads are completed. Then the high land values and the scarcity of land per capita, due to the density of the population, naturally affect the price of timber, and the fact that the Government owns large forest areas and exercises supervision over a great portion of the rest enables it to prevent sudden fluctuations in prices by controlling them just as syndicates do. For example, when a moth visited the forest of Kirschseon, near Munich, several years ago and to save it from total destruction the immediate cutting of 6,000 acres (about 120,000,000 board feet) was necessary, the Bavarian Government, fearing an overstocking of the market and consequent low prices, curtailed the cut in all its other forests, and advised the forest owners throughout Germany to likewise abstain from cutting that year and thereby save themselves a possible loss through depression of prices.

Judging by the past, the prices of wood now prevailing in Germany promise to rise for an indeterminable period. In Prussia, for the 65 years between 1830 and 1895, the prices increased annually one and a half per cent, their rise being more steady and rapid than those of the staples wheat and rye. In our own country the prices of wood for the period between 1850 and 1894 advanced more than 5 per cent per annum, and there is every reason to believe that 50 years hence, and maybe sooner, the prices of wood in the United States will equal or even surpass those now existing in Germany.

The steady appreciation in value of forest products throughout Europe, which is the natural outcome of the decreasing forest area and the increasing demand for wood, together with proper fire protection and rational taxation, make forestry one of the safest investments, many

forests paying regularly net dividends of 4, 5, and 6 per cent per annum.

Under economic conditions which make wood a readily marketable product commanding high prices, both the small farmer and the large landowner are not less alive than the State itself to all improvements by which the productive capacity of the forest may be increased. This fact of great importance is strongly brought out by the treatment of German forests, not all of which are owned by the State, as is commonly believed in this country. Of the about 35,000,000 acres of forest in Germany, 48 per cent belong to private owners and only 32 per cent to the State and Crown. Nor are all private forests subject to State control; only 29 per cent are under some State supervision, the remaining 71 per cent being entirely free from any State oversight. Wherever it exists, the State control of private forests is in the form of either prohibiting the clearing of forest land without procuring permission from the State, prohibiting devastation and deterioration, enforcing reforestation within a given time after the removal of the old growth, prescribing definitely the manner of cutting, or enforcing the employment of qualified personnel.

The forests that belong to communities, villages, towns, and cities occupy 16 per cent (5,500,000 acres) of the total forest area, and all are under one or another form of State supervision, the remnant of the relations that existed between the "mark" communities and their liege-lords. The States of Württemberg, Baden, Hohenzollern, Alsace-Lorraine, Hesse, and Southwest Germany possess most of the communal forests. The character and degree of the State supervision of communal forests varies in different localities and even within the same State. Thus while in the Prussian provinces of Rheinland and Westphalia the villages manage their own forests, under the single restriction that they procure permission from the State authorities for clearing or sell-

ing their forests (a permission, by the way, which is not readily granted unless it can be proved that there is too much agricultural land under forest or the request is supported by some other good reason), in some localities of Prussia communal forests are managed directly by the State, the communal authorities having only advisory powers. The first system of State supervision is rather limited,



FOREST STUDENTS AT PRACTICE, KELHEIM  
Courtesy of the Bureau of Forestry, United  
States Department of Agriculture.

extending over only 5 per cent of the communal forests. The system of direct State management embraces 45 per cent of the communal forests. Over the largest portion of the communal forests, nearly 50 per cent of them, there exists a technical control, *i. e.*, the communities must submit the plans of management for their forests to the State Government for sanction, and must employ qualified officers, who are inspected by State foresters. A State control similar to that of the communal forests is also exercised over the forests belonging to various institutions (1.5 per cent of the total forest area) and corporations.

Such curtailing of the rights of ownership, however annoying it may appear, adds essentially to the prosperity and general welfare of the communities, as is proven by facts. The villages in certain

parts of Germany which sold their forests in 1848 almost invariably became impoverished, while in those which were wise enough to keep them the forests now frequently pay all the taxes of the community, and, in addition, help materially in lessening pauperism, in increasing credit, and in enabling large enterprises to be undertaken. Besides merely financial advantages, the communal forests exercise a most beneficial moral influence upon the members of communities by creating in them the feeling of local attachment and by adding fresh charm to rural life. Most communal forests serve as great parks in which the beauty of the landscape is preserved unharmed, and a network of well kept roads and paths, with occasional benches along them, is maintained.

Besides mere coercive and restrictive measures in reference to private and communal forest ownership, the State employs also measures of encouragement by means of financial aid in the form of subsidies and loans, by the dissemination of information, and by the maintenance of schools of forestry and forest experiment stations.

The principle underlying German, and for that matter all European forestry, is to cut annually an amount of wood equivalent to, or a little less than, the year's growth of the entire forest; in other words, to treat the forest as a capital and the yearly cuttings as the interest on it. Since the increment of the forest can be raised only through the improvement of the forest itself, the skill and the efforts of the forester are directed toward bringing the forest into a condition at which the greatest and the most desirable growth of the individual trees is secured. This end is attained by raising in a given locality only those species which are best adjusted to the conditions and produce in the shortest time timber of the highest economic value; by growing several species in mixture, which secures the fullest utilization of soil and space, besides having other advantages, like greater clear

length of the timber, improvement of soil, and safety against fire and insects; by proper and timely thinnings, which are made after the trees have attained a good height growth, in order to allow more light to the crowns of the remaining individuals and thus stimulate their growth in diameter; by removing badly-grown, malformed, and valueless trees. In order to cut only the annual increment, the forest, besides being fully stocked and growing at its fullest capacity, must have also the proper representation of trees of different ages, because trees become fit for use only after they have attained the proper size; therefore a forest consisting of young growth only, though it may fully utilize the soil and space and grow at a good rate, does not allow the realization of the annual increment.

For example, let us assume that the most profitable size for utilization is reached by some tree in 50 years and we have 1,000 acres of this species under management; in order to utilize every year and forever the annual increment of the 1,000 acres, we must have the forest divided into as many sections as there are years in the period required for the tree to reach its maturity—in our own case into 50 sections, each 20 acres in extent and differing from one another by one year; *i. e.*, 20 acres of 50-year-old trees, 20 acres of 49-year-old trees, and so on down to the last 20 acres just stocked with one-year-old trees. The 20 acres stocked with 50-year-old trees ready for the ax represent the annual increment of all the 50 sections, or 1,000 acres; it stands to reason that 20 acres left to grow for 50 years accumulate a growth equal to the annual growth over an area of 50 times as large, *i. e.*, 1,000 acres. The only difference is that the annual increment over the 1,000 acres can not be utilized, while the 20 acres stocked with 50-year-old trees, representing this annual increment, are fit for immediate use. Such a proportionate representation of trees of different ages exists in the German for-

ests. The planting of waste lands to forest which lately took place in Germany resulted in a greater percentage of young trees than old ones throughout the forest area as a whole, which promises a still greater wood production in the future than now. The German coniferous forests consist of 48 per cent of trees younger than 40 years, 33 per cent of trees from 41 to 80 years old, and 16 per cent of trees over 80 years. In the broad-leaved forests these three age gradations are approximately equally divided.

Mismanaged woods cannot be brought into such a normal condition in a short time; it takes many decades before careful and conservative treatment of the forest begins to tell in an increased productive capacity. In the forests belonging to the State and to large landowners the principle of conservative cutting with the view of improving the forests was strictly adhered to, with the result that the State forests are now in better condition and are producing more wood annually than



A "PIG TIGHT" AND "DEER HIGH" FENCE  
Enclosing a plantation of Norway Spruce and  
Scotch Pine. Contrast healthy young trees  
inside with stubby, nibbled ones outside.

Courtesy of the Bureau of Forestry, United  
States Department of Agriculture.

private forests, whose owners, at times of financial difficulties or high prices, were tempted to cut more than the mere annual increment of their forest, a reason in favor of State control of all private forests.



The German Government realizes the national economic importance of the forests, not only as sources of direct revenue from soils fit for no other purpose, but also on account of their beneficial effect upon agriculture, industry, and the general welfare of the country, and, having learned from past experience



WEEDING IN A NURSERY OF YOUNG SILVER FIRS, BLACK FOREST

Courtesy of the Bureau of Forestry, United States Department of Agriculture.

that individual efforts proved inadequate to cope with the problem of forest preservation, it now not only strongly believes in maintaining the State forests, but strives to increase their area by buying devastated and deforested lands or by exchanging for them agricultural land from the public domain. Bavaria spent \$6,000,000 for that purpose during the last 50 years, and Prussia's appropriation for the same purpose was \$800,000 in 1900 only.

By conservative cutting, improvement of roads, and effective cultural operations the German forest administration has succeeded in raising the revenue from the forests year by year. In Prussia the net revenue per acre has increased from 44 cents in 1830 to \$1.19 in 1897; in Bavaria for the same period from 46 cents to \$1.74; in Saxony, from \$1.10 to \$5.10; in Württemberg, from 82 cents to \$4.29; in Baden, from \$1.61 to \$4.14; and this in spite of the fact that in many State forests the management is hampered by servi-

tudes and rights of the people upon the forests, such as the right to pasture in the forest, to gather leaf litter for stable bedding, etc., and is more expensive than in private forests. The higher cost of State management is, however, compensated by the service rendered by the State forests, often at a direct financial loss, to certain industries which could not exist otherwise. This service may lie in selling wood at cheaper prices or, as in Bavaria, by preserving the old Beech trees and allowing their cutting only in small quantities every year, in order to supply with the proper wood manufacturers of large malting shovels and broad baker's paddles.

One of the most important cultural operations is the renewal of the cut-over forests. The methods by which the reproduction of the forests is attained are numerous, and differ with the species, locality, and State. In Pine and in Spruce forests it is accomplished by planting seedlings on the cut-over areas. Beech forest is generally reproduced by natural seeding, very seldom by planting. Oak forest is renewed by sowing acorns or planting one- to three-year-old seedlings. The plant material is raised in nurseries, which are necessary adjuncts to every forest district. After having reached an age of one to several years, the seedlings are either planted directly in the forest temporarily or transplanted in the nursery for a period of several years, only after which are they permanently planted in the forest. The transplanting is for the purpose of allowing the seedlings to develop a better root system, and thus enable them to withstand the first few years in the forest, the most critical period in the life of young trees.

Of the 26 States composing the German Empire, little Saxony, with its dense population, furnishes probably the most striking example of the results which can be attained by the systematic management of forests. When Cotta, the Nestor of German forestry, commenced his activity at the beginning of the nineteenth century,

the forests of Saxony were in a deplorable condition, similar to our culled and burned forests as we find them in parts of the Adirondacks. By careful management the small forest tract of 430,000 acres, not half the size of many a county in the United States, and occupying rough mountain land, has been made to yield on an average over \$4,000,000 annually, its productive capacity increasing 60 per cent at the same time and the net revenue per acre 300 per cent.

The manner in which the Germans tax their forest land and protect it from fire is especially instructive to Americans, since lack of fire protection and illogical forest taxation are unquestionably the two main drawbacks to the development of forestry in the United States. The very fact that in the greater part of Germany, especially in the densely populated districts, branchwood and even roots are readily marketed, thus leaving almost no debris in the woods after logging operations, greatly reduces the danger from fire. In our country the problem of fire protection would be much easier of solution if means were found to utilize the tops and other inferior material, which now being left in the woods furnish ready fuel for fire.

In Germany forest districts most subject to danger from fire are subdivided into blocks by avenues or lanes 130 to 600 feet wide. These avenues are annually burned over to keep them free from all readily ignitable debris, or are sown to grass. They serve as a base from which, to fight fire, and help in confining it to limited areas. The numerous roads and paths winding through the forest are utilized for the same purpose. Special care is taken to protect the forest from fires which may be set by locomotives passing through them, the most frequent cause of forest fires in this country. To this end strips 25 feet wide are cleared along both sides of the track. Occasionally these strips are used for farm purposes, or kept free from all inflammable

material by regularly burning them over. Bordering these strips of cleared ground strips of woods 50 to 60 feet wide are left to catch the sparks from the locomotives. Sometimes a ditch between the strip of woods and the track is added, with cross ditches 300 feet apart to help in limiting the fire to small areas.

Such precautions, together with the moral support of the resident population, which is interested in the preservation of the forest—the source of their livelihood, strict laws against setting forest fires, and proper police organization and management have reduced the fire danger to such an extent that it does not impair the safety of forest property in the least, one of the first conditions to carrying on forestry as a business. In the sandy pineries of Prussia, which are most exposed to fire danger, the area of forest land burned over between 1868 and 1898 never exceeded 0.02 per cent, or one acre in 4,500, and during some years it was only one acre in 8,000. In the mountainous forests



MILLIONS OF SEEDLINGS IN A FOREST NURSERY, KELHEIM

Courtesy of the Bureau of Forestry, United States Department of Agriculture.

of Bavaria only one acre in 13,167, or 0.007 per cent of all Bavarian forests (two per cent of their gross yield) was destroyed by fire during the five years from 1877 to 1881.



PLANTED HEMLOCK FOREST

Courtesy of the Bureau of Forestry, United States Department of Agriculture.

Taxation is a lever by which desirable industries can be encouraged and undesirable ones restrained. The iniquitous taxation of forest land in the United States is hampering the development of forestry here. Where taxes are levied upon the forest land out of proportion to the timber there is on it, as is usually done by assessing at the same value cut-over and virgin forest lands, or where taxes are so high as to add 5 and even 7 per cent yearly to the cost, forest owners can not practice forestry. They are compelled to sell in haste all the timber they can get from their land and then to allow it to revert to the State for delinquent taxes. The high taxes make unprofitable the holding of the land for future crops. In Bavaria, and to some extent in Prussia and Hesse, the practice is to tax only the soil value, without regard to the forest crop, similar to the way in which agricultural land is taxed. Farmers are not requested to pay taxes

on the value of the soil and also on the value of the crop upon it, but on the soil value alone. Nor are the owners of land devoted to forest crops requested to do so in Germany. However, since the forest crop represents from 75 to 80 per cent of the total forest value this system of taxation favors the forest owner too much, and is gradually being replaced, as in Saxony, by a sliding income tax, which is collected only when the owner harvests his forest crop and receives an income. In all cases there is a just equation between the amount of taxes and the productivity of the forest. In this way taxation does not defeat its own end, as it does in this country, where, on account of unreasonable taxes on timber, many counties now have but burned deserts, from which nothing can be got, while by having exercised more judgment and foresight in taxing their forest land they might now be prosperous and rich.

In vain will one look in Germany for

the huge sawmills of the American type. There is no need for them there, as there will be little need for them here as soon as our supply of virgin timber will have gone. Our present mammoth sawmills are necessarily temporary affairs, requiring enormous forest areas to keep them running and remaining only as long as the timber resources of the neighborhood last. As soon as nothing besides second growth will be left to supply them, and our forests finally come under an economical and systematic management, they will have to give way to sawmills more moderate in size but more permanent and regular in their work. Since the annual cut in German forest districts varies but little from year to year, and, measured by our standards, is exceedingly small, the German sawmills are as a rule also small, but they are of permanent nature, and located near watercourses supplying the power for running them. The German timber market is not national in character, as ours is, but principally local, the forest districts supplying just enough wood for the wants of the neighboring country. Therefore the sawmills work largely on order, those who need timber getting it promptly and without paying an added cost for long transportation, as is the case with us.

In such a densely populated country as Germany proper economy requires that all good land should be devoted to agriculture, and forests on land suitable for farming are exceptional. Since the soil conditions vary with the topography within even a limited area, *the best use*

*of all the land* can be made by devoting that suitable for agriculture to farming, and poor soil fit for no other use to forest. Therefore, while in this country the distribution of the forests is still largely the result of the free play of natural forces, in Germany it is brought about to a great extent by artificial influences, like density of population, development of industries, growth of private property, and so on. There one seldom sees extensive, uninterrupted stretches of farm land or of forest, but the two always in an intimate relation. In even the rough mountain regions the bottoms and fertile benches are under cultivation, while the slopes are under forest. Within the forest itself there are fine hay fields, which, irrigated by the water from mountain springs, yield a product of the highest quality. The combination of forestry and agriculture proves beneficial and profitable in many respects: it makes possible the building of good, permanent roads, which are in use the year round, thus lessening the expense for their construction and repair to each of the two industries; it enables regular employment to be given to a large number of people by keeping them busy in the field during summer and in the woods during winter.

How closely agriculture is connected with forestry in private holdings may be learned from the following table, which shows that the extent of forest in private holdings increases with the increase in size of the farm, as regards both the number of farms raising forest and the area devoted to it.

Size of farm	Number of farms	Percentage of the farms combining agriculture and forestry	Total area of farms	Percentage of the area under forest
		Per cent	Acres	Per cent
Acres				
Less than 5	3,235,169	4.57	6,038,270	17.10
5 to 12	1,016,239	21.92	10,354,472	13.20
12 to 50	998,701	40.11	31,341,750	14.76
50 to 250	281,734	52.18	32,889,280	16.71
250 and over	25,057	54.88	27,572,445	23.34

One of the effects of the introduction of forestry in Germany was to decrease

the number of indigenous tree-species which formerly existed in that country,

since only those having the highest economic value were preserved, ten or twelve in all. The bulk of the German forests, fully two-thirds of them, is made up of coniferous species, Pine, Spruce,



DENSE STAND OF YOUNG NORWAY SPRUCE,  
BAVARIAN PFALZ

Courtesy of the Bureau of Forestry, United States Department of Agriculture.

Silver Fir, and Larch; of the broadleaved species only Oak and Beech are principally used in forestry.

The present German organization and the splendid results attained by it would be impossible without an effective service, without a large number of men well educated and well trained in their profession. While the American forester at home must still explain to nearly everybody in a half apologetic way the character of his profession and is likely to be remunerated at the end of his explanation by a skeptical smile or a frank remark that it is all foolishness, in Europe forestry is a noble profession respected by the people, and the work of the forester is considered of great usefulness to the nation at large.

Unlike his brother, the German professor, the forester in Germany is not a man of abstract ideas, but eminently practical and businesslike in all his ways, as is his preparation in the school and the woods. Often he spends all his life in the same forest district, growing old under the shade of the trees he has himself planted, and therefore familiar with his forest in detail from beginning to end. He can tell almost at a glance the number of trees on any particular acre, their average dimensions, the amount and grade of wood that can be gotten, the yield in money, or the profitableness of cutting at the prevailing prices trees of one or another diameter. He watches his forest growing, he knows its friends and its enemies and by taking timely measures he frequently saves it from an insect depredation or other damage. Like the farmer, he has his busy and comparatively idle seasons. In the spring he sows and plants, in the summer he weeds his nurseries and determines the character and amount of thinnings, in the winter he harvests the crop; but at any time he welcomes an opportunity to steal a few hours for a ramble through the woods with his gun on his shoulder. He does his own surveying, he builds his own roads and bridges, and keeps his own books, together with so strict a record that if at any time he drops his work, his successor is able to continue it in accordance with the general plan laid out for several decades ahead.

The German forester has the experience of his predecessors to guide him in his work; the American forester is still a pioneer in his profession. Though the sciences underlying forestry are universal, the practical application of it varies radically with conditions. With species five times as many as those in Germany, with a climate varying from subarctic to tropical, with economic and social conditions and people of a temperament differing widely from those of the old country, the American forester must work out his own

solution to the problems confronting him.

The United States is just completing the first phase in the exploitation of their forests—the lumberman's phase, with its wasteful cutting away of not only the interest but the wood capital itself, which has brought us within sight of a complete exhaustion of our wood supply. This phase, which is a natural and necessary one in any new country with an abundance of natural resources, has accomplished its mission by bringing the wilderness within the reach of civilizing influences, and now it is bound to be gradually replaced by the forester's phase—the economical and rational management of our remaining forest resources, such as exists in Germany and other European countries. The successful beginning in this direction, the awakening of public

interest to the need of forest preservation in this country, has been made, but there is still more work ahead.

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# How the American Boy Is Educated

## Bodily Basis: Physician and Teacher

By Walter L. Hervey

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**I**T is my purpose in this article to deal with a group of phenomena and problems which grow out of the fundamental and unescapable fact that man is endowed with, and is limited by, a physical nature. The gravity and importance of these matters have often been overlooked and neglected by the educationist and by the community at large. In more recent years better knowledge,

reinforced by more urgent need, has tended to secure for them the attention they deserve. It is coming to be realized that education must aim at producing efficiency, and that efficiency is impossible without the bodily basis. President Eliot has recently borne striking testimony on this point. "I have had the opportunity," said he, in a recent address on Education for Efficiency, "of watching for more

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This is the third of a series of nine articles on "How the American Boy Is Educated." In this series Mr. Hervey will undertake to give a picture of the various and contrasting conditions under which the American boy is being built into a man through education. The following articles have already appeared: Education and the American Boy, September; Home Education, October.

than fifty years successive ranks of young men going out of Harvard University into the work of the world, and I have seen in hundreds of them the development of character and the issue or results of that development. Anyone who has used such an opportunity will inevitably be an optimist concerning the effects and potentialities of education. As a rule, the comparison of the educated man of sixty with the same person at twenty is wonderfully encouraging and stimulating with regard to the average effect on human beings of education and the discipline of life; but such an optimist will confess, if he is candid, that bodily excellences and virtues count very much towards this favorable result. It seems to me, as I review the life-failures I have witnessed, that the only cases of hopeless ruin are those in which the body has first been ruined through neglect or vice, or was congenitally perverted and made the victim of criminal propensities. If, through drink or licentiousness or other vicious habits, the body of an educated man is ruined, there may be no recovery possible for that individual in this world; but whenever the body has escaped destruction and remains in tolerably sound condition there are few moral wrecks which may not be, to all seeming, completely repaired in this world. These considerations emphasize strongly the importance of making the means of protecting, caring for, and improving the body an important part of education for efficiency."

The measures for promoting the efficiency, and for treating and counteracting deficiency of body or brain, may thus be summarized: (1) The bodies of school children must be nourished and kept in health, and knowledge regarding foods, cookery and hygiene must be disseminated among their parents; (2) special cases must be segregated and dealt with according to need; (3) the highest bodily efficiency must be secured through physical education. To secure the first of these

ends there is requisite (as we shall see) the efficient coöperation of the class teacher, of the specialist in domestic science, of the parent, of the school architect, and even of the philanthropic or paternal arm of the State. To secure the second, there must be coöperation of the medical inspector, the physician, the social specialist in dealing with defective and dependent classes, and the teacher of marked sympathy and skill. To secure the third, there must be had the services of the specialist in physical education, who combines the view point of the teacher and physician.

It might at first seem as if nutrition, bathing, cleanliness and the like, were not fit subjects for consideration in a series of articles on education. Not many centuries, or even decades, ago this view of the isolation of education was largely held. The parents might say—many parents do in effect say—to the school authorities, "What business is it of yours what my child eats, when he goes to bed, how often he bathes, or of what contagious disease he is spreading the germs?" To which the school authorities reply: First, we cannot educate your child unless we can hold his attention, enlist his interest, and subordinate his lower to his higher nature—unless we can "keep his body under" and his soul on top. Now, if he is ill at ease in his body from filth, disease, vermin, hunger or craving; if he had nothing but a cup of coffee for breakfast and goes home to an innutritious lunch; if he suffers from rampant pediculosis—we can do none of these things. The demands and distresses of the body will continually break in upon the course of the thoughts, and inattention, wool gathering, loss of interest, mischief making, and ill temper will result. And, secondly, as for your sending your child to school to be a source of danger to other children, that cannot be tolerated any more than sending him to school with a loaded pistol.

The theory of physical care, of school

lighting, ventilation, and cleanliness, of medical attendance, and of school baths and lunches for such as require them, is simple; to put the theory into practice is most difficult. Many if not most of the ventilating systems in use, are effective rather in keeping the fresh air out than in forcing it in, the system devised by the superintendent of school buildings in New York being one of the notable exceptions. "Why don't you open the windows this beautiful Spring morning?" asks the visitor. "We are afraid of spoiling the 'system'," replies the teacher. "We are forbidden to breathe any fresh air except that supplied by the 'system'." School lighting is a subject which requires attention not only in the crowded city, but in the open country—and is seldom treated with scientific skill. We can all recall schoolhouses in city and country in which the windows did not reach up to the ceilings, and did not cover the required space in the walls. The recent monograph by Dr. Stuart H. Rowe on the *Lighting of School Buildings*, (Longmans, 1904) is a valuable contribution on this subject. There are authorities on school hygiene who demand that school rooms should be so built as to admit of being flushed with the hose pipe daily. With any less radical mode of cleaning it is almost, if not quite impossible to eradicate the school smell and the school dust, which are not only causes of discomfort but also breeders of disease. Compulsory school baths are regularly provided in many European cities. In American cities the need is not less great, but aside from a few schools, the provision is meager. The proposition to provide school baths in congested districts has been in some cities successfully fought by parents on the ground of alleged infringement of personal rights. Properly managed, however, school baths are practicable and desirable. In a school of 2,000 children, each child can be given a bath once a **week**, to his physical, mental and moral edification. Nutritious school

lunches, such as are provided at noon to school children in Paris, are often an urgent necessity, both from the view point of education and of society. I have known a kindergartner to provide, out of her own pocket, a lunch for her ill-fed children in the middle of the short morning—on the ground, primarily, that she could do absolutely nothing with them until their home breakfast of strong coffee had been supplemented and counteracted by simple and nourishing food. Where free lunches are impracticable, there is provided in many schools an inexpensive and nutritious lunch, in which hot soup, bread, milk and fruit are offered rather than the pastry that usually abounds. An evil hard to reach is the cheap candy shop which battens on every large school. It ought not to be impossible to enact and enforce a law forbidding the sale of candies of a certain kind within a specified distance from the schoolhouse.

If it be urged, as against such a measure as providing school lunches that it is socialistic, in reply may be pointed out that many features of modern education are to a certain extent socialistic. To provide free an education beyond the rudiments is "socialistic"—"it taxes me in order that you, already on your feet, may earn better wages." But the American people have unmistakably said, "Let us have as much of this kind of socialism as we can possibly pay for. It pays." President Eliot in an article on *The School* (*Atlantic Monthly*, November, 1903) even holds that "the withdrawal of the children from the care of the mother for five or six hours a day makes possible for many a woman the proper discharge of her duties as wife and mother. The child-bearing mother, in particular, needs to be relieved for several hours a day of the care of her children who are above three years of age, and to feel during this relief that the children are safe and under good influences. This view of the school is a just and proper



one; for the immense majority of the mothers of the nation not only bear the children but do all the household work, and the greater part of the making and mending of the children's clothes. The public school in city or country thus helps that family life on which the well-being of the State absolutely depends."

The relation between the Board of Education and the Board of Health has never been clearly or satisfactorily defined. It would seem that the most effective plan would involve such coöperation as would permit efficient officers of the Board of Health to enter the school with the full powers of office, subject, however, to the authority of the Board of Education. The difficulties here are divided authority, the danger of perfunctory examination, and where the inspection is strict, the care of excluded children, and the expense. Where an inspector is asked to pass only on children selected by the teacher as suspects, many cases will escape detection. "Several of the European cities have in some ways advanced far beyond the United States in the matter of medical inspection of schools. They not only pay attention to contagious diseases, but also to defects of sight, hearing, lateral curvature, etc. The school physicians investigate carefully the physical condition and health of the pupils who newly enter the school; in order to determine whether they need permanent medical supervision or special consideration in the instruction of the school. Every fourteen days or oftener in case of contagious disease, the school physician holds consultation hours in the school, and the aim is to have him visit every class twice each half year. The school physicians also coöperate in the medical inspection of the premises and the equipment of the school." Boston was the first American city to establish daily medical inspection of schools (1894). Physicians from the Board of Health visit the school-houses each morning, and children that appear to the teachers to be ailing are

sent to them for examination. In Chicago the daily inspection of schools, begun in 1900, has been discontinued, owing to lack of funds. The work is now done by a small emergency corps. In New York a system was adopted in 1902 whereby each medical inspector is given a certain number of schools to visit daily, and at that time the children thought to need his attention were sent to him. But, besides this, he is required to go to each class room once a week, paying special attention to sore throats, to contagious disease of the eyes, and the parasitic growths of the head and the skin. "This method of inspection," writes Lydia Gardiner Chace, Fellow College Settlements Association, (*Charities*, September, 1904), "caused the exclusion of large numbers of children. The evil results of the exclusions were apparent to those most interested in the welfare of the children, and a nurse from the Nurses' Settlement visited certain schools each morning to treat those whose condition, if attended to, would not be a menace to the health of their companions. The results of her work were so satisfactory, that, after two months of trial, five nurses were employed by the Board of Health to work in coöperation with the school physicians. At the end of the school year in June, 1903, there were sixteen nurses working in sixty-four schools in the Bronx, with a supervisor of the Nurses' Settlement. The statistics of the year 1902-1903 show that medical inspection in New York City is certainly no longer a mere formality. In the first week of the school year, more children were excluded for contagious disease than had been excluded in the entire school year previous."

The close relation that exists between the teacher, the physician, the nurse and the social worker is strikingly illustrated by the schools for crippled children which have been founded chiefly under the beneficent auspices of churches and other philanthropic agencies. Such

children do not generally fall under the provisions of the compulsory education law, and they cannot be cared for in ordinary schools; yet they are pitifully in need of an education that will rescue them from lives in which deformity and pain are unrelieved by human interests and activities. Many of these children are cripples because of hereditary taint. As long as they remain at home they are prone to suffer from the ignorant neglect of their parents. When they are searched out and brought to the school, they are always found to be in need of the physician and the nurse, as well as of the teacher. When the bodily sufferings of the children are relieved, the ingenious skill of the teacher is called for. Here are children who have never been able to use their hands, because their arms refused to bear the burden. The teacher provides a support for the arms, and gives the hands—for the first time in life—something to do! In such schools, too, are found children who cannot stand upon their legs; yet rhythmic dancing is an indispensable element in their education and they are eager for it. "Unable to stand on their legs, they are placed on their backs on a mattress on the floor, and gymnastic teacher puts the legs through the rhythmic dancing movements in time to music. This is done so that although the little patient himself cannot execute the required movements, these exercises will assist to develop the motor area in the brain so that the child will eventually gain motor control over his legs." Of all the helpful deeds done for the little ones in the name of pure philanthropy and education nothing surely can be sweeter or more beautiful than this. These children may never be able to earn a living, their usefulness to others in material ways may never be greatly enhanced, but they are at least saved to themselves and to a human life.

The Chicago "Hospital School" for children is one of the most interesting enterprises in this field. Its objects are

to provide special education for slightly subnormal and invalid children, to provide laboratory facilities for the scientific investigation of such phenomena, and to provide special training for teachers and nurses. Sixty per cent of the children who have received education and medical care in the school are now reported to be working with normal children. Many practical suggestions have been made, and teachers are under training, the present demand exceeding the supply. Some of the conclusions of the careful investigations are interesting:

(1) We have learned that the majority of nervous children should have from twelve to fourteen glasses of water per day—two quarts at the very least.

(2) That children from five to twelve years of age should average fourteen hours of sleep per day.

(3) That children should have the heaviest meal of the day in the evening.

(4) That young nervous children require hot baths at least once a day to help reduce the nervous condition.

(5) That a close relation exists between pulse deviation and non-elimination.

(6) That young nervous children, because of their excessive activity, require more carbohydrates and should be fed five, six, and even seven times a day.

(7) That the so-called abnormal craving of children for candies and sweets is nature's demand for sugars.

The story of the discovery, diagnosis, sequestration, and special treatment of atypical (nervous, backward, defective and feeble minded) children forms a most interesting, instructive and pathetic chapter in the history of education. It is a chapter which is as yet largely unwritten.

Few persons have any conception of the number of children of school age, both those in the public and private schools and those detained at home, who are in need of special attention. Few realize the dangers to society and the miseries of the individual which result from

the lack of needed attention. Tests on 10,000 school children in California showed ten per cent mentally dull and three per cent feeble minded. A more common estimate is that not less than one per cent of the school population is mentally deficient. Dr. Fernald writes: "During the past five years I have visited many public primary schools, and I believe I have never failed to find one or more distinctly backward children in each school." These are the children who, if neglected, will recruit the ranks of human failures, criminals, prostitutes, and perverts; if given proper attention, many will be saved, to society and to themselves.

The proportion of backward or nervous or ailing children is naturally much greater than that of the feeble minded; and much greater now than formerly. It is estimated by experts that one in every three school children in Chicago is a victim of some kind of nervousness. Of a large number of school children in various localities who were tested for deafness, 13 per cent were found partially deaf and but 3 per cent were unconscious of the fact. In Cleveland 18.7 per cent of the school children were found to have trouble with their eyesight. The statistics have never been collected of the thousands of children confined at home and deprived of educational advantages and of social life; or of those afflicted with adenoids and similar troubles, which unsuspected and hidden, block their mental and moral development; or of those who, having lost time from school through sickness, and still suffering from the sequelæ of disease, have never regained their grip on school work.

The first requirement in dealing with these cases is discovery. This should not be left entirely to the principal and the class teacher. With them should coöperate a special officer assigned to the examination of children reported as needing special attention. The next requirement is diagnosis and classification. The merely backward or temporarily atypical children

should not be confounded with children in the higher grades of feeble mindedness; nor these with the congenitally abnormal or with pathological cases. The next requirement is the provision of appropriate classes and schools and of fitting treatment. Sequestration, even for backward children, is absolutely necessary in justice to the child, to the teacher and to the class. No one can preserve his "physical, mental and moral equilibrium" if continually dubbed a dunce. The social forces at work in every schoolroom can be potent for ill to one not truly a member in full standing of the social body.

There have been schools and asylums for imbeciles and feeble minded children in this country ever since 1848, (the year when Dr. Seguin came to America), Massachusetts being the first to found an institution for feeble minded children. About forty-six other institutions, public and private, are now in existence in various states. In the nineteen public institutions there was in 1892 an enrolment of 6,009. All these institutions are essentially educational in the broadest sense. Particularly in later years they have been operated in accordance with the dictum of Sir W. Mitchell: "It is of very little use to be able to read words of two or three letters; but it is of great use to teach an imbecile to put his clothes on and take them off, to be of cleanly habits, to eat tidily, to control his temper, to avoid hurting others, to act with politeness, to be truthful, to know something of numbers, to go with messages, to tell the hour by the clock, to know something of the value of coins, and a hundred other such things." Book knowledge in all these institutions, while not neglected, is subordinated to those lines of training and instruction that will make the child helpful to himself and useful to others.

In the matter of providing special classes for atypical, backward, and slightly feeble minded children in connection with the public schools, Europe is far ahead of America. In Germany

there have been such classes since 1867. In Prussia, since 1880, the provision of classes and schools for defectives has been obligatory in cities of 20,000 population. In England a law was passed in 1899 providing for the establishment of special schools or classes, and bringing defective children within the provision of the compulsory attendance law. In America special classes for defectives were established in Providence, R. I., in 1896, and since in Boston, Chicago and Philadelphia and New York, and a few other cities. The work is in its infancy.

The measures taken with the various kinds and grades of backward and defective children are not only extremely interesting, but they are practically suggestive to parents and teachers generally. A teacher of remarkable skill once said to me: "Whatever of success I have in teaching I owe to the fortunate circumstance that I began my teaching in an institution for the blind." "We are constantly impressed," writes Mr. E. R. Johnstone (*Charities*, September, 1904) "with the fact that the difference between the training of normal and of feeble-minded children is rather one of degree than one of kind. The operations of our child's mind are so slow and so exaggerated that we have opportunities to more carefully study and observe its processes. Most of these processes are similar to those of the normal child, in whom, however, they pass too rapidly for easy examination. Our child is, in many respects, identical with the normal child placed under a microscope. This being the case, our schools must become laboratories of educational work."

Physical education is a term which only in comparatively recent years has come to have a definite meaning. The work of the specialist in physical education is in part to prescribe exercises ("corrective gymnastics") applicable to certain disorders and malformations, as spinal curvature; but it is his work chiefly to secure, through appropriate muscular

exercises, the highest general bodily efficiency and vigor of the individual. Time was when the services of such a specialist were not generally needed, and when they could not have been secured if they had been needed. When children generally ran wild in the country—in the woods, along the streams, across the fields—and when parents led lives of manifold bodily activities, on the farm, or in the shop, with plenty of air, and exercise and change, there was little need of what Herbert Spencer has called the "factitious exercise" of the gymnasium. A man who swung an axe all day had little use for Indian clubs. But the life of today differs from that of a generation ago in being largely urbanized, and largely specialized. Urbanization, generally speaking, tends to deprive of air and space, to force people to ride instead of to walk, to cramp the chest, curve the back, "wing" the shoulder-blades, dwarf the legs, and protrude the abdomen. Specialization tends to cultivate a narrow set of muscles or powers and at the expense of "general somatic life." Both tend to overwork the nerves and underwork the muscles. To these conditions is to be added the fact that children today spend a longer time than formerly under the physically cramping and devitalizing influences of schools. For both urbanization and specialization the specific remedy is afforded by the specialist in physical education. As an integral part of the school he undertakes to provide the exercise which the conditions of life do not afford, to counteract the ills incident to indoor and sedentary occupations, to fortify the body in childhood and youth so that it can stand the strain of later life.

Anyone who will glance through such an admirable book as that recently written by Dr. Luther H. Gulick on "Physical Education by Muscular Exercise" (Blakiston, Philadelphia) will readily see that the task of the teacher of physical training is a most delicate one. He must adapt the exercises to individual needs;

must realize that he is dealing not merely with muscles but also with nerves and with mind, with a psycho-neuro-muscular organism. Pupils whose nervous force is already low should not be required to give swift response to quick commands, or be subjected to the strain of competition or excitement. On the other hand, pupils whose neuro-muscular force is greater than their mental control, may be trained in attention, imagination, thought and will, by performing exercises at command; for "we think in terms of muscular action;" "the muscular system is the organ of the will."

The aim of the specialist in physical education in American schools seems to be a combination of two strongly contrasting systems: gymnastics and athletics. The old time German gymnast (described by Dr. Gulick) has powerful shoulders; the individual fibers of the muscles stand out prominently; he has a powerful grip. The muscles upon his chest and shoulder-blades are prominent. His chest appears large; but this may be due rather to excessive muscle than to the position of the ribs; the thorax is rather flat from repeated severe exertion of the abdominal muscles. The muscles of the legs are vigorous, but are light in proportion to the development of the shoulders and arms. He can do almost anything on the apparatus when suspended by his arms, but he cannot run for long distances, and is not graceful as a walker or jumper. He is apt to be "muscle bound," and is often the slave of his own condition—his muscular establishment being an expensive one to maintain. The pure athlete, on the other hand, of which the English school-boy is a type, works less for abstract indoor muscle-building and more for concrete sports and games. "His characteristic games and sports and exercises are running, jumping, throwing, wrestling, boxing, cricket, football, lawn tennis, hunting, fishing, horseback-riding, rowing, mountain climbing, and so on. These exercises furnish conditions more

similar to those under which the body was developed in evolutionary times than do the more or less artificial exercises of the gymnasium. Each part of the body is exercised in accordance with the way in which it is developed; the heavy work is done by the legs, work demanding speed and agility is done by the arms; the arms do not support the weight of the body for long periods as they often do in systems of gymnastics. He is fairly strong, is erect and graceful. He is a fleet runner, and has splendid endurance. He rides horseback; can spar and wrestle. He has played his game of football, and has rowed on one of the many crews in his university. He is quick, hardy, can take care of himself in an emergency, is used to handling himself in a crowd. He cannot do any particular gymnastic feats with skill, nor is he interested in them. During later life he will drop his active participation in most of the more strenuous sports; but he will ride, play golf, swim, row, and will always maintain a keen interest in these things."

The aim of physical education in America is to produce neither gymnasts nor athletes, but a happy combination of both—to build a body whose "different parts are so related to one another as to produce a whole in which each part is exactly adapted to perfect coöperation with every other part." The means employed to this end naturally combine some features of both systems; but the emphasis is increasingly laid, even among school boys and girls, on athletics; and properly so. Athletics calls for and includes gymnastics, but gymnastics does not necessarily issue in athletics. It is proper to regard the body as a means; it is not proper to regard it as an end in itself. It is interesting to note that this change of emphasis in physical training is in line with similar changes in other school subjects, in manual training, in drawing, and in literature. The abstract and the subjective have in every case given way to the concrete, the objective and the practical.

# Nature Study

## Seed Distribution

By Anna Botsford Comstock

**T**HE very interesting and delightful subject of Seed Distribution is usually taught wherever Nature Study is a part of the school curriculum. However, it is too often taught as a fact unrelated to plant life. If a seed is transported by parachute or wings, or by attaching itself to the fur of animals there are reasons therefor, which are vital to plant life. In teaching the various ways that seeds are developed for transportation the following reasons should also be thought of and studied:

1. The sole object of a wild flower is to develop seed. The children are likely

2. If the seeds all fell near to the parent plant they would be so crowded that many or all of them would starve exactly as if a dozen children were com-



BURDOCK FLOWERS



WHERE ARE THE "BALLOONS" IN THE THISTLE BLOSSOM

to think that the plant exists for the sake of the blossom, whereas the blossom exists for the sake of the seed. In the case of annuals and biennials the production of seed is the climax to the plant's life and it dies soon after.

pelled to sleep in a bed large enough for one, and to live upon the bread and butter which would be sufficient to nourish just one individual.

3. As plants are stationary and cannot move about and select favorable positions in which to plant their seeds, the seeds must find their positions for themselves, and in order to do this must travel.

4. As a seed when it starts off on its journey has to take its chances at being dropped in a favorable situation for growth it is perfectly evident that where one succeeds hundreds are likely to fail. Therefore, the plant must develop many

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This is the second of a series of home Nature Study Lessons for the parents and teachers prepared by the Cornell Bureau of Nature Study. Lessons for children of the Chautauqua Junior Naturalist Clubs will appear each month in *Boys and Girls*, Ithaca, New York.

more seeds than would be necessary if it could walk about like an animal and take care of its young. In this connection it should be noted that some animals, like the moths and butterflies, the toads, frogs



HOW DOES THE ASTER SCATTER ITS SEED?

and fishes, and many sea animals, lay very many eggs, letting the young take care of themselves. Wherever the young are thus left to care for themselves many are destroyed, and but very few survive and therefore many eggs are necessary.

In studying the methods of seed dis-

tribution the following classification is usually followed:

*Seeds shaken out by the wind.*—Poppy, lily, seeds from cones, chestnuts, beechnuts.

*Seeds that are carried by pappus "Balloons."*—Dandelion, thistle, cat tails, asters, goldenrod, milkweed.

*Seeds with wings.*—Maple, ash, elm.

*Seeds snapped out of their receptacles.*—Witch hazel, violets, touch-me-not or jewel weed.

*Seeds carried by water.*—Cat tail, cranberries.

*Seeds blown over bare fields or fields of snow.*—Wild carrot, many grasses, honey-locust pods.

*Seeds carried by birds.*—Blackberries, raspberries, poison ivy, Virginia creeper.

*Seeds used for food and then carried by squirrels and other animals.*—Nuts, grains.

*Seeds that attach themselves to animals.*—Burdock, stick tights, pitch forks.

#### QUESTIONS

1. Why have plants developed devices for scattering seeds?
2. What is the purpose of the flower?
3. Describe or picture the poppy pod, showing by drawing or describing how the seeds are scattered.
4. Show by drawing or description the development of the dandelion seed in the dandelion flower.
5. What is pappus and where does it grow in the flower?
6. Describe the pappus of the thistle in the flower, and also as it looks when it is carrying the seed. Notice that each division of the pappus has fringe along its sides. Show by sketch the difference between the dandelion balloon and the thistle balloon. Show by description or by figure the arrangement of the seeds of the pappus in the milkweed pod.
7. What other seeds do you know that sail by balloons?
8. If you have ever burst a pod of the touch-me-not or jewel weed tell how it is done.
9. How does the witch hazel throw its seed across the room?
10. Sketch or describe some seed with wings. Describe the texture and venation of the wings.
11. Do you know of any seeds with wings that grow on low plants?
12. Why is the winged seed's shape adapted to the needs of the tree?
13. What plants do you find being blown about the bare fields in November or later in the winter?

14. Make an experiment by taking a pan of water and placing upon it the seeds of the milk weed, thistle, willow or cat tail and note how long these seeds will float before they sink.

15. Which of the above named seeds would be likely to be planted by the water, supposing they floated upon it?

16. Make a cross section of a cranberry and draw or describe the interior, and explain how it floats.

17. Which birds are most active in scattering the seeds of berries?

18. Study the bur of a burdock and find how many seeds it contains and how

they are situated. Sketch one of the hooks of the bur.

19. The blossom of a burdock and of a thistle are not unlike in general appearance. Explain the difference between the uses of the spines on the burdock and those on a thistle blossom. Study the stick tight or a pitch fork and notice where is the seed and where is the hook, and describe the difference between these and the burdock seed.

20. The burdock and many others were introduced to America from Europe. Write a short imaginative story of how the first burdock seeds were brought across the Atlantic.

21. How would you teach seed germination in connection with seed distribution?

## The School of Facts

By Tudor Jenks

“**A** TRULY scientific clock-dial should not be numbered after the usual fashion, nor is the numbering from 1 to 24 the proper thing. The time of day is the sun, and should culminate at noon, and diminish again to its vanishing point; that is, twelve might mark noon and midnight as at present, but after twelve we should have eleven, ten and so on down to one. After one should come two, three and so on up to twelve again.

“In this way the figures would bear a relation to the light of midday and the darkness of midnight, and would indicate the *crescendo* and *diminuendo*.”

So argued an earnest crank, and though I was not especially interested in the matter, being used to the old system, yet I may represent my state of mind by the colorless phrase, “There is much in what you say.” His words were smooth and the argument sounded well.

Later, the notion seized me to see what would be the result of marking a clock-face as the reformer suggested. I drew a diagram and began to put the scheme into tangible shape, but made no more than a beginning for a reason the reader will fully appreciate if he will condescend to try the experiment for himself.

But the happening had its moral. It made me wonder whether many of the

grand reforms which flow so freely from the lips of eager young enthusiasts, that sound so clear, so easy, so pleasing, would be as practicable as his change in the face of the kindly clock. There was no particular reason why I should try the device; it was done in an idle moment. But one would think the crank himself might have taken a turn at it, and then have cheerfully consigned his crude notion to the limbo where such things belong—giving it a niche between perpetual motion and circle-squaring.

It was a case of words, words, words. Do these crank reformers ever try to work with their hands? Do they never strive to mend or regulate domestic timepieces, or sewing machines, window shade rollers, or what not? If they do how can they fail to appreciate the wise old adage, “Facts are stubborn things”? How often does the domestic tinker concentrate the logical powers of his trained intellect upon some simple mechanical problem, triumphantly solve the puzzle—in his mind—and then tackle the more material obstacles, only to find that “the thing won’t go.” Suppose him to be setting right an obstinate clock. The spring pushes, the wheels are in place, the escapement is adjusted, all is ready. Theoretically the clock should go. The amateur goes step by step, mentally, over



the whole process, and convinces himself that his logic is flawless. The clock, by all the laws of John Stuart Mill, should go. And meanwhile the clock offers no arguments to overthrow his conclusions, gives no sign of unwillingness, but simply offers for the reasoner's observation the fact that it cannot go.

Such is the training offered by handwork to its practitioners.

Perhaps we may find here the reason why practical men are not at once converted by theoretical arguments. Their attitude may seem like obstinacy, but it is merely caution resulting from experience in practical matters.

Some years ago, when Free Trade and Protection were rival battle cries on the political field of conflict, two young college students were overwhelming with theoretical arguments a prominent member of congress. They were echoes of a rather dogmatic college professor. The congressman made little attempt to reply to his petty assailants, but he closed the discussion by saying: "You send your professor up on the floor of the House, young man, and we will bowl him off his pins with cold facts in five minutes!"

And no doubt the professor, surrounded by grinning congressmen who pelted him with chilly facts, would not have long retained his *ex cathedra* air of scorn for all who ventured to doubt his neat dogmas. He, too, would have found facts stubborn, and possibly might have discovered that his neat little book-theories would not "go."

I have purposely omitted to state the side espoused by each, since that is nothing to the purpose.

Is it not the great virtue of handicraft that it ranges its votary opposite to the fact, and teaches him to respect the realities of things? Much other education deals with the abstract; handicraft is the corrective of the merely verbal.

Not that it is the only one. The game

of chess teaches one salutary lessons of a similar nature. The chessboard is a tiny battlefield every part of which is open to view. All your enemies—the little manikins of wood with their romantic names are of known powers, and (excepting the erratic knight) of straightforward methods. There are but sixty-four squares, orderly, white and black. The whole presents a simple problem, austere mathematical, and aboveboard.

Surely that mighty intellect of man should be able to grapple with the game's few possibilities—at least a few moves ahead—and move with the certainty of fate.

But, alack and well-a-day! The quiet player on the other side of the table relentlessly demonstrates how illogical you are. There is no room for "if" and "but." Your poor king must acknowledge himself to be beyond hope. "Sheik emat!"—checkmate—the king is dead, and if you be wise you learn again that facts be stubborn things. Do not rise from the table with unshaken confidence in your infallible intellect. Lose the game, but not the lesson that in other affairs than the warfare of wooden puppets you may be wrong and the other man right. If you are a Morphy, a Steinitz, a Lasker or Pillsbury, you may best prove this by a record of games won or problems solved; admitting it to yourself is of little profit. You will play best by knowing your own rank, and by giving or taking odds like a modest man.

Fortunately there is room in the world for the average man, or even for him who falls a little below the medium; the knocks are for those who insist upon butting into stone walls in the belief that facts are to be frightened or cajoled into yielding to the "intepid human spirit" or the "commanding human intellect." The wise man knows that the stone wall may be taken apart, and wins by yielding to the laws of its nature. The faith that removes mountains is not a faith in magic.



### NAPOLEON AND FORESTRY

An example of what he did for France through forestry comes in these days as a sidelight on the comprehensive genius of Napoleon. That desert region extending from the Loire to the Pyrenees along the coast, he reclaimed to industry and made one of the garden spots of today. It has been said that here "the growth of the *pin maritime* . . . marks the most remarkable achievement ever wrought by human agency in the modification of natural conditions of soil and climate for the benefit of mankind." Here was the source of supply of the masts and spars and pitch of the Phœnicians, Greeks and Romans, but during the centuries since then the luxuriant forests had succumbed to the ax and torch until—a level plain—the region was swept by the heavy, steady Atlantic winds, carrying with them barren clouds of sand, farther each year. The rolling sand dunes marched inland inch by inch, driving life before them and leaving desolation behind. The condition is well described in the report of the United States consul at Bordeaux:

At the beginning of the nineteenth century the region between the Gironde and the Pyrenees, excepting a narrow belt which skirted the southern bank of the river, extending inward from 50 to 100 miles, was not only one of the most barren in the world, but apparently altogether hopeless of reclamation. For 100 miles along the shore of the Bay of Biscay there stretched a threatening array of gray sand dunes which year by year pursued their irresistible march toward the heart of the most productive land in Europe, at a rate varying from 1 to 200 feet a year. One after another great waves of sand, moved by the restless winds that swept across the Atlantic, continued their unceasing march across the fair plains of southern France, burying all before them—fields, meadows vineyards, houses, churches, even villages—leaving behind them only gray billows, to which clung bunches of

bracken, a few starved bushes of scrub oak, and thickets of white and purple gorse, fighting stubbornly for a hold upon the shifting sands, with here and there some straggling groups of pines, the protesting remains of a great forest which wind, and sand, and fire, and water had spared.

The country seemed doomed; but Bremontier, a native of the region, conceived the idea that the advance of the sand might be arrested by planting the *pin maritime*. This tree—the maritime pine—has long wirelike leaves, which offer no resistance to the wind, but, falling on the barren sand, give shelter and nutriment to vegetation, while the salt air from the ocean is its life. Napoleon, to whose attention the project was brought, was favorably impressed and gave orders to try the experiment. Young trees were sprouted, and planted where most likely to withstand the unfavorable conditions. They were pronounced a success. The march of desolation was not only checked, but gradually it was forced back toward the sea. The judgment of today is that the hope of Napoleon a century ago has been realized. The immense forests of *pin maritime* now thrust their tenacious roots deep through their own soil into the ancient desert. To quote again from the report of the consul:

The gray dunes which were sweeping over the land have become serried fortresses, which shelter civilization and prosperity. Here, man has pitted himself against the destructive forces of nature and won, making the winds and waves his servants for the renovation of past evils and the establishment of future benefits. Lumber, firewood, resin, turpentine, and all the by-products of resinous distillation are now produced in such abundance as not only to prevent the need of importation, but to make southwest France a considerable and profitable exporter of the same. Not only the finest lumber for domestic uses is produced, but railway ties, telegraph poles, fence and vineyard posts, and millions of the pit props which sustain the

roofs of English collieries come from the eastern shore of the Gulf of Gascony—the ships that bring Welsh coals carrying back the supplies which make the mining of coal possible.



#### FIRE FIGHTING IN THE ADIRONDACKS

Damage by forest fires in the Adirondacks last year was conservatively estimated at \$3,500,000. Carelessness and disregard of legal requirements by railroads are blamed for the largest part of the fires. Officials point out the fact also that the present fire wardens are not employed to prevent fires, but merely to organize a sufficient force to fight them when they come to notice, which is costly and dangerous. How the men fought these fires makes exceedingly interesting reading. We quote not from a sensational headline newspaper but the report of H. M. Sutor, agent of the United States Bureau of Forestry:

In New York the official care of the State's interest in the Adirondack and Catskill forests, and the administration of the Adirondack and Catskill preserves, are under the direction of a superintendent of State forests. A chief fire warden has charge under him of all matters of fire protection and prosecution of offenders against the fire laws. Both of these officers are appointed by the Forest, Fish and Game Commission. The commission also appoints a fire warden in each forest town, upon whom rests the responsibility of fighting all fires in his territory. The towns are usually divided into convenient districts, each of which is guarded by a deputy warden. These officers are empowered to order any able-bodied man out to fight fire, and have full direction of the work. The State shares equally with the town in paying for such labor if the warden certifies that the work was authorized by him and was actually performed.

Had there been no such organization the losses of this year would have been much more severe and extensive. In the main the wardens showed intelligence and zeal in the performance of their duties, and made a gallant fight against odds which were frequently overwhelming. In some cases they and their men worked fifteen hours a day for a number of consecutive days, some to be prostrated later by sickness following the long strain and complete physical exhaustion. The various com-

munities and the State owe such men a debt which pay checks can not cancel. The blame for the avoidable loss lies rather with the system than with the men.

The most effective fighting was done from daybreak until about 9 o'clock in the morning. The fires were usually much deadened at this time of day, and the wardens took advantage of the fact, resting their men or acting chiefly on the defensive in the middle of the day, and renewing the attack toward evening, when the fires again lost some of their aggressiveness.

Surface fires were checked by raking away the litter on the forest floor in a path a few feet wide, which served as a line of defense from which the fire could be fought back as it approached. When water could be obtained the path was thoroughly wet down. Shovelfuls of sand were dashed upon blazing wood. Burning grass in the clearings was thrashed out with the bushy top of a young spruce or balsam, or a few furrows were turned with a plow across the track of the fire.

But usually the presence of duff made it necessary to dig a trench from 1 to 4 feet wide, down to the mineral soil, sometimes completely encircling the fire. The roots were cut through with axes and mattocks, and the mass of peaty material chopped up and shoveled out. Often the sand was heaped against the outer side of the trench to protect the duffs from sparks and heat, when the fire burned through the inner side. Several wardens report digging 15 to 20 miles of such trenches.

When other methods failed or could not be used the wardens resorted to back firing. Often the fires became crown fires, or were of such volume of heat that men could not approach them. In such cases trenches were prepared, and fire was applied all along the side next the approaching forest fire. If the trenches could then be defended successfully for a short time, the fires thus set would burn a distance back from the trench, thus clearing away much of the combustible matter and robbing the conflagration of its energy when the two lines of fire finally met. Most of the wardens who employed this experiment report good success in its use, and some say that without it they could have made no effective defense at all.

These methods were fairly successful as long as enough help could be had and there was no strong wind. But about May 28 to June 3 (the latter being the worst day) high winds occurred in the Adirondacks, fanning smouldering fires into activity. As a result fire fighting became generally ineffective. The woods

became so hot and smoky that everyone was compelled to take refuge in the clearings and to confine his efforts to an attempt to save the threatened cottages, camps, hotels, and farm buildings. The destruction of the entire region seemed not at all improbable, for in the dense pall of smoke it was impossible to tell where the fires were. In some localities these unseen fires could be heard distinctly, and the nights were almost as bright as the days from the glare. People frequently slept on the floors to avoid the smoke.

It was only the timely appearance of heavy rains, beginning June 7, that brought the fires under control. Hundreds of men dropped their tools that day and slept the sleep of utter physical exhaustion. Another week of strain would have beaten down all defense.

Fire fighting had been carried on practically without cessation for six weeks. It cost the State, local authorities and corporations, taken altogether, somewhere in the neighborhood of \$175,000. Each town must pay one-half its authorized fire bill. This will work hardship in many towns of small population, for the bills of some of them amount to as much as \$10,000 or \$12,000. To meet one-half this amount will require a decided rise in rate of taxation, or possibly the issue of bonds.



#### THE MENACE OF FOREST DESTRUCTION

The climatic history of the old world will repeat itself in America. If forest destruction, at its present rate of recklessness, should continue much longer, our continent will have to dry up. So will an orator who should venture to urge that fact upon a boodle legislature, in this era of lumber trusts. But the fact remains, and its significance may be inferred from the experience of the Mediterranean coast lands, where thousands of god-gardens have been turned into Gehennas of wretchedness and desolation. By tree destruction alone a territory of 4,500,000 square miles has been withdrawn from the habitable area of our planet. The physical history of the eastern hemisphere is the history of a desert that originated somewhere near the cradle of the Caucasian race—in Bactria, perhaps, and, spreading westward and southward, has blighted the Edens of three continents like a devouring fire and is now scorching the west coast of Africa, and sending its warning sand clouds far out to seaward. —*Dr. Felix L. Oswald, in National Magazine.*

#### NEW YORK ARBOR DAY PLANTING

The following table gives the number of school districts in New York state which have observed arbor day and the number of trees planted each year since the law went into effect:

Year.	Number of districts	Trees planted.
1889.....	5,681	24,166
1890.....	8,106	27,097
1891.....	8,956	25,786
1892.....	8,809	20,622
1893.....	8,783	15,973
1894.....	9,057	16,524
1895.....	8,450	15,073
1896.....	9,823	16,569
1897.....	9,921	17,975
1898.....	9,885	18,429
1899.....	9,883	16,357
1900.....	10,251	15,045
1901.....	9,803	16,701
1902.....	9,893	19,320
Total .....		265,637



#### WHAT IS FORESTRY?

Ernest Bruncken, in "North American Forests and Forestry" says:

"For let it be understood as clearly as the English language can express it: Forestry is not, as many imagine, the science or natural history of woodlands; nor is it the art of planting trees; nor that of preserving woodlands. It embraces all these things, or at least special phases of them are required in its practice. But it is made up of many things besides. Nor should it be forgotten that forestry as such is not a matter for poets, artists, or sentimentalists, nor even for lovers of sport with rod and gun. . . .

"If forestry is not all this, what under the sun is it? the impatient reader will be ready to cry. It is simply the art of managing forests and utilizing them for the benefit of their owners. As soon as a human being begins to take for his use the manifold natural sources of wealth contained in the primeval woods, he practices the art of forestry. . . .

"If forestry is nothing more than the utilization of forests, it necessarily follows that improved methods cannot be inimical to the interests of forest owners. That is the best method of forestry

which is to the greatest advantage of the proprietor of the wood. . . .

"The private owners of woodlands, however, are not the only parties interested in the rational treatment of the forests of North America, for on skilful forestry depends the supply of one of the greatest necessities of civilized life, and with improper forestry methods several of our most important industries must soon begin to decay. Besides, the extent and character of the forests have a powerful influence on the climatic and physiological conditions of the country."



#### AMERICAN CIVIC ASSOCIATION

The officers of the American Civic Association (merger of the American League for Civic Improvement and the American Park and Outdoor Art Association) have reason to feel greatly encouraged over the conditions reported to the first meeting of its executive board last month. Departments are being rapidly organized for definite work and substantial contributions to the cause in money as well as service were reported. The administrative affairs have been centralized in the office of the First Vice-President, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, North American Building, Philadelphia, Mr. C. M. Robinson having resigned as secretary. Correspondence should be addressed to Mr. Woodruff.



#### TOPICS IN OCTOBER MAGAZINES

An Unusual Country House: The unique handiwork of a California editor. Henrietta P. Keith. *Booklovers*.

A Public Wash House. Cara Reese. *Good Housekeeping*.

The Yale Summer School of Forestry. James W. Pinchot. *World's Work*.

The Spread of Vacation Schools. Adele M. Shaw. *World's Work*.

Windows and Window Motives. E. C. Holtzoper. *Country Life*.

Evolution of the Country Porch. Walter E. Andrews. *House Beautiful*.

Inoculating the Ground (discovery in scientific agriculture). Gilbert H. Grosvenor. *Century*.

#### FROM THE FIELD

"Moisture Means Millions" is the motto of California Water and Forest Association.

The total area of forest reserves belonging to the National Government at the close of 1903 was 63,095,254 acres. Seventeen national parks, situated in fifteen states and territories, protect the forests on 3,654,825 acres, and 68,557 acres of woodland are included in eight military reservations.

Every twenty-four hours the railroads, manufacturers and home builders of the United States demand twenty-five thousand acres of timber land. That is, there is a daily consumption of all the wood the trees in twenty-five thousand acres supply.—*J. Sterling Morton, ex-Secretary of Agriculture*.

The main point is that we fail to rate the forest as a living perpetual resource. Coal, copper and other resources become in time exhausted, but the forest if properly treated will yield an income forever. It will supply labor and feed other industries for all time if the rules of silviculture are rigidly practiced.—*John Gifford*.

Canada is far in advance of the United States in her laws for forest perpetuation. On Crown Land licentiates are forbidden to cut pine trees measuring less than twelve inches in diameter, spruce trees less than eleven inches and other trees less than nine inches. Some inferior trees, used for wood pulp only, may be cut if seven inches in diameter, measurements made at the stump.—*Arboriculture*.

There are now 203,132 miles of railroad track in this country, and the number of ties required merely for renewal, amounts annually to something like 114,000,000. The increasing scarcity and rise in price of ties has led many railroad systems to consider provision for future needs. The Bureau of Forestry cooperating with railroads has undertaken extensive experiments to determine the best methods for increasing length of service of ties and bridge timbers, not alone by preservative treatment of low grade timbers but by mechanical devices to lessen wear and tear.

Besides the Bureau of Forestry, the United States Department of Agriculture, the General Land Office and the Division of Geography, both under the Department of the Interior, are concerned in forest work. The General Land Office through its Division of Forestry, has to do with the administration of the Federal Forest Reserves. The Division of Geography, which is a part of the United States Geological Survey service, has to do at present with the classification and description of forest lands in the federal reserves and to

a certain extent concerns itself with government forest lands outside of the reserves.

"First and foremost, you can never afford to forget for a moment what is the object of our forest policy. That object is not to preserve the forests because they are beautiful, though that is good in itself; nor because they are refuges for the wild creatures of the wilderness, though that, too, is good in itself; but the primary object of our forest policy, as of the land policy of the United States, is the

making of prosperous homes. It is part of the traditional policy of the home-making of our country. The whole effort of the Government in dealing with the forests must be directed to this end, keeping in view the fact that it is not only necessary to start the homes as prosperous, but to keep them so. You can start a prosperous home by destroying the forest but you cannot keep it prosperous that way.—President Roosevelt in California address.



## CIVIC PROGRESS PROGRAMS

### I

#### FORESTRY

Roll-call: Name a tree having commercial value and state some of its uses.

Correlation: Appoint some person to outline briefly the inter-relation of the civic topics in the November CHAUTAUQUAN: German Forestry, Reading Journey, Survey of Civic Betterment, Highways and Byways, Talk About Books, etc.

Summary: Epitomize article on German Forestry by Raphael G. Zon in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for November.

A Definition: "What is Forestry?" See Forests and Forestry, etc., in North American Forests and Forestry, Ernest Bruncken; What is Forestry? B. E. Fernow, Bureau of Forestry.

Map Study: Use a large map to indicate the prevailing types of forest in different sections. See General Forest Map of the United States in First Book of Forestry, Filbert Roth. Locate also the national parks and forest reserves. Colored crayon on a cheap railroad map will make this exercise more graphic.

Symposium: "The Worth of the Forests."

(a) "Forest Industries." See Influences of Forests Upon the Lumber Industry, O. W. Price, Bureau of Forestry; Forestry and the Lumber Supply, Bureau of Forestry; Practical Forestry, John Gifford; First Book of Forestry, Filbert Roth; North American Forests and Forestry, Ernest Bruncken; copies of *Arboriculture*. (b) "Study of a Tree—The Catalpa." Address *Arboriculture*, Connersville, Ind. (c) "Forests in Relation to Irrigation, Water Supply and Floods." See Forest Influences, Bureau of Forestry; Earth as Modified by Human Action, G. P. Marsh; Irrigation in the United States, F. W. Newell; Should the Forests Be Preserved? California Water and Forest Association, San Francisco.

Paper: "Foes of the Forest." See Primer of Forestry, Gifford Pinchot, Bureau of Forestry; Tenth Census of the United States, 1880, Vol. 9; Forest Growth and Sheep Grazing, E. V. Colville, Bureau of Forestry; First Book of Forestry, Filbert Roth; North American Forests and Forestry, Ernest Bruncken.

Paper: "Governmental and Administrative Reforms Needed." See North American Forests and Forestry, Ernest Bruncken; inquire of forest associations and periodicals; Irrigation Institutions, Elwood Mead.

Report: "State and Local Forestry Problems." Note forests, wood-lots, needs of manufacturers, etc. Address Bureau of Forestry, and state forestry officials and associations to secure any data available about the situation in your state or neighborhood. See Forestry for Farmers, B. E. Fernow, Department of Agriculture; Woodlot, H. S. Graves and R. T. Fisher, Bureau of Forestry.

Discussion: "What Can We Do?" See suggestions under this caption following these programs.

Address: "Forestry as a Profession." See Beginnings of Professional Forestry, B. E. Fernow, in Fifth Annual Report New York Fisheries, Game and Forest Commission; North American Forests and Forestry, Ernest Bruncken. Address *Forest Quarterly*, Ithaca, New York; the various forest schools; Bureau of Forestry.

Book Review or Reading of Selections: "The Forest," Edward Stewart White.

### II

#### TREES AND TREE PLANTING

Roll-call: Name a tree, adding a quotation or mention of some notable characteristic of its form or habit.

Book Review: Introduce the audience to (a) Among Green Trees, J. E. Rogers; (b) Getting Acquainted With the Trees, J. H. McFarland.

Readings: "The Tree in Prose and Verse." See Trees in Prose and Poetry, G. L. Stone and M. G. Fickett; arbor day material supplied free or at nominal prices by state superintendents of education, and by educational publishers.

Paper: "Arbor Day—Its Origin, Purpose and Application." See Arbor Day, five cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., see also under "Readings" above.

Symposium: "Importance of the Tree." (a) Esthetic. See Forest Trees and Forest

Scenery, G. F. Schwarz; Tree Planting on Streets and Highways, W. F. Fox. (b) Health. See Vegetation a Remedy for the Summer Heat of Cities, *Popular Science Monthly*, Feb. 1899; Forest Influences, Bureau of Forestry.

Report: A Study of Local Tree Problems, including the apparent need of trees, the kinds to plant, those not suited for local use, suggestions as to distance apart, particular trees for specified streets, co-operative supervision of pruning, or better, the municipal control of trees outside the property line, etc. See Protection of Shade Trees in Towns and Cities, E. H. Jenkins and H. S. Graves, Connecticut Agricultural Experiment Station; Tree Planting in St. Louis, Englemann Botanical Club; Tree Planting on Streets and Highways, W. F. Fox.

Report: "The Study of Forest and Tree Topics." Consider what clubs, college, high school, elementary school, and individual students may do to secure an appreciative understanding of these important topics. See Elementary Forestry, and Trees for School Gardens, in *Nature Study and Life*, C. F. Hodge.

Illustrated Talk: "How to Plant and How to Care for Trees." See *How to Set Out Trees and Shrubbery, Youth's Companion*; Landscape Gardening as Applied to Home Decoration, S. T. Maynard; Tree Planting on Rural School Grounds, W. L. Hall, Department of Agriculture; Beautifying the Home Grounds, L. C. Corbett, Department of Agriculture.

Paper: "Our National Parks." See *Our National Parks*, John Muir; Short Account of the Big Trees of California, Bureau of Forestry; publications of passenger departments of Southern Pacific, Northern Pacific and other railroads.

Song: "The Patriot Planters." In *How to Set Out Trees and Shrubbery, Youth's Companion*.

#### ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

Valuable and attractive articles will be found in *World's Work*, *Review of Reviews*, and other periodicals. Use *Readers' Guide*, *Cumulative*, *Poole's* or other indexes.

Bureau of Forestry, Department of Agriculture, and Superintendent of Documents will all supply additional matter. Address Washington, D. C., or through your congressman.

#### FORESTRY PERIODICALS

*Forestry and Irrigation*, Washington, D. C. *Arboriculture*, Connersville, Ind. *Forest Leaves*, Pennsylvania Forestry Association, Philadelphia. *Forestry Quarterly*, Ithaca, N. Y. *Woodland and Roadside*, Massachusetts Forestry Association, Boston. *Water and Forest*, California Water and Forest Association, San Francisco.

#### SCHOOLS OF FORESTRY

Yale Forest School, New Haven, Conn. Biltmore Forest School, Biltmore, N. C. University of Michigan Forest School, Ann Arbor, Mich. Harvard Univer-

sity Forest School, Cambridge Mass. More or less complete forest courses are offered by several other American colleges and universities.

#### FORESTRY ASSOCIATIONS

American Forestry Association: Secretary, Edward A. Bowers, New Haven, Conn. International Society of Arboriculture, Secretary, J. P. Brown, Connersville, Ind. Society of American Foresters, Secretary, George B. Sudworth, Washington, D. C.

#### WHAT CAN WE DO?

Forestry is essentially a commercial proposition. Hence the study programs given above intend to aid in giving an understanding of the public policy needed to preserve an industry and a business of far reaching economic importance.

The program on trees and tree-planting is added as a help towards awakening popular interest in the social and esthetic values of the tree.

Probably every interested individual or circle can carry out one or more of the following suggestions:

Write your state and national legislators urging their support for judicious forest legislation, and requesting that reports and other publications be sent to you.

Suggest that the schools use forestry literature as supplementary reading. Attractive material can be secured at little or no cost.

Try for a general observance of arbor day. Pledge members and friends to plant one tree annually for say five years.

Suggest that farmers' institutes, teachers' associations, business men's clubs and other bodies discuss forestry.

Give moral and financial aid by joining a forestry association.

Secure samples of the forest periodicals—a number of them may be found interesting enough to be taken regularly.

Invite editors to use forest news, and promise to have a "news letter" mailed to them regularly, as noted below.

Suggest that local libraries secure books, pamphlets, and periodicals, many of which can be obtained without expense, and then call attention to them in various ways.

Look up definitions of the following, and introduce them as a feature of the program: silviculture, arboriculture, arbor day, forest reserves, national parks, wood-lot, forestry, tree nurseries, etc. Many worthy interests suffer largely from incomplete and inaccurate understanding of the terms used in press and platform discussions of the subject.

An interesting object lesson for home or school or public park, will be the planting of a few seeds and recording their growth year by year. By all means include the *Catalpa speciosa*, seeds of which can be secured by enclosing return postage to Mr. J. P. Brown, Connersville, Ind.

Valuable data will be obtained by taking a census of trees in public places. If the school teachers will take charge, possibly in cooperation with a committee of club women, the work can be correlated happily with nature study and civics. The city streets, parks, etc.

can be charted and divided into small blocks, each in charge of a boy or girl. The location of trees can be indicated, and where possible, the species. A teacher or other competent person can make corrections which will serve as material for further study. As the proper care of trees, and their normal appearance is brought out in the class room, the boys and girls may exercise judgment and observation by critically viewing the trees in their respective districts. If some one with authority will indicate the right distance between the trees, proper location, and the like, arithmetic work may include measurements of tree locations, etc. Many other expedients are possible, all leading to intelligent interest in the tree, and the increased planting of the proper trees in the right places. Many suggestions

to these ends will be found in the Junior Citizen League department of *Boys and Girls*, Ithaca, New York.

Correspondence regarding any of the following may be addressed, with return postage enclosed, to Bureau of Civic Co-operation, 5711 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago:

Addresses of state forest officials or commissioners, and state forest associations.

Use of an elaborated bibliography of forest books and periodical references.

Securing by purchase or loan any of the publications not obtainable.

Six brochures by Dr. C. A. Schenck of Biltmore Forest School. Price thirty cents.

Forest news letters that may be sent to editors who agree to use some of the material.

## News Summary and Current Events Programs

### DOMESTIC

September 2.—Fire destroys \$800,000 worth of property in Memphis, Tenn.

3.—Seventeen members of the British Parliament arrive at New York, bound for Inter-Parliamentary Congress at St. Louis.

4.—Fire in tenement house in New York kills 14 persons.

5.—Maneuvers between 26,000 United States troops and state militia are begun at Manassas, Virginia. Jefferson Davis, Democrat, is elected governor of Arkansas for the third time.

6.—Republicans elect state ticket in Vermont by majority of 31,500.

7.—Threatened strike on the New York Interborough railway is averted, the demands of the employes being granted.

8.—Judge Parker, addressing a delegation of Democratic editors, charges the Republican administration with extravagance. Eighth annual international geographic congress begins sessions at Washington. Utah Democrats declare for separation of the Mormon church from state politics. Butchers' strike, by announcement of President Donnelly, is declared at an end at Chicago.

9.—Maneuvers at Manassas, Virginia—the third battle of Bull Run—are ended.

10.—New York butchers, dissatisfied with President Donnelly, form a new union.

11.—Russian cruiser *Lena*, from Vladivostok, arrives in San Francisco for repairs.

12.—Maine Republicans elect state ticket with a majority of 27,130. Executive council of American Federation of Labor holds sessions at Washington to hear labor disputes.

13.—Inter-Parliamentary Congress at St. Louis declares for intervention to stop the Russo-Japanese war, and also for a new Hague conference.

15.—Colorado Republicans re-nominate Governor Peabody on a law and order platform. New York Republicans nominate Lieutenant Governor Frank W. Higgins for governor. Russian cruiser *Lena* is ordered to be dismantled by the United States authorities, and to be placed in the custody of the naval authorities.

19.—At Huntsville, Ala., the special grand jury called to investigate the lynching and

burning of three negroes, recommends the impeachment of the sheriff, chief of police and mayor.

20. New York state Democrats nominate Judge D-Cady Herick of Albany for governor. Tennessee begins suit against the Standard Oil Company for infringement of the new anti-trust law.

21.—President Roosevelt returns to Washington after spending the summer at Oyster Bay, Long Island.

23.—The Standard Oil Company, found guilty of violating the Tennessee anti-trust law, is fined \$5,000. Canadians, at Vancouver, seize American ship for alleged poaching on the fisheries.

24.—President Roosevelt announces to the Interparliamentary Union meeting at Washington, that he will soon make a call for a second peace congress at The Hague. Archbishop of Canterbury is entertained by the President at the White House. Near Knoxville, Tenn., in a railroad collision, 66 are killed and 125 injured.

25.—The Deering, McCormick and Plano branches of the International Harvester Company resume work after two weeks idleness, giving employment to 9,000 men.

### FOREIGN

September 2.—Russians under General Kuropatkin, are driven across Taitse river by the Japanese, with heavy loss.

3.—General Kuropatkin retreats toward Mukden, leaving General Stakelburg with 25,000 men surrounded at Liaoyang by Japanese. Government troops in Uruguay defeat insurgent troops, fatally wounding General Saraiva, their leader.

4.—General Stakelburg escapes from the Japanese and rejoins General Kuropatkin. Liaoyang is taken by Japanese, under General Kuropatkin, with heavy losses.

6.—Congress of English trades unions at Leeds, England, declares for a ministry of labor and against compulsory arbitration of industrial disputes. Extradition treaty with the United States is ratified by Cuban senate.

7.—Sviatopolk-Mirsky is appointed by the



Tzar to succeed the late M. Plehve as minister of the interior. American consul at Karpoot reports intense suffering among the Armenians, 3,500 of whom have perished by massacre and famine.

8.—Kuropatkin reported to have lost 17,000 men in the battles around Liaoyang, the Japanese loss being 17,530.

10.—A treaty is signed between British and grand lama of Tibet, the latter yielding to demands of the former.

11.—Government troops are defeated by Uruguayan insurgents.

15.—Japan declares a protectorate of Kamchatka. Fire destroys \$500,000 worth of property in Halifax. An heir to the Italian throne is born and named Humbert, Prince of Piedmont.

16.—King Victor Emmanuel, of Italy, as a thanksgiving offering for the birth of his son, gives \$200,000 to the workman's old age fund, and declares amnesty for certain offenses. A general strike in Italy is called by the Socialists.

19.—Socialist strike in Italy spreads to many cities, bloodshed resulting in Rome, where strikers are charged by the cavalry. Russia, of all the powers, refuses to instruct her minister to attend the coronation of King Peter at Belgrade.

20.—Russia protests against Anglo-Tibetan treaty. In inter-Semitic riot in London between the Orthodox and non-conforming Jews on the Day of Atonement, many are injured.

21.—King Peter is crowned at Belgrade. Fire destroys \$500,000 worth of property at Montreal.

22.—Mormons are prohibited from preaching their doctrines in Hungary.

24.—Italian Socialists present a petition to convoke the parliament to consider the government strike policy.

25.—In a reorganization of the Manchurian army, General Gripenberg is made commander of the third army corps. Peace negotiations between the government and the insurgents in Uruguay are successful. Prince Mirsky, the Russian Minister of the Interior, at Vilna, Russia, promises impartial and just dealing with the Jews.

29.—Alderman John Pound is elected Lord Mayor of London.

30.—Ninety-one bags of mail destined for the United States, are rifled between Paris and Havre, France.

#### OBITUARY

September 1.—Charles B. Spahr, editor of *Current Literature*, lost at sea.

8.—Rev. George C. Lorimer, pastor of the Madison Avenue Baptist Church, New York, dies at Aix-les-Bains, France.

18.—Prince Herbert Bismarck, son of the late Fürst Bismarck, dies at Fredricksruhe.

23.—Lafcadio Hearn, the author of "Chita" and "Stray Leaves from Strange Literature," dies at Tokyo, Japan.

24.—Professor Nels Finsen, discoverer of the application of the blue light, dies at Copenhagen.

25.—Rear-Admiral Fernando P. Gilmore dies at New York. Louis Fleischman, the millionaire baker and philanthropist, dies at New York.

30.—George Frisbie Hoar, United States Senator from Massachusetts, aged 78 years.



### CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS

#### DOMESTIC

1. Roll-call: Examples of "graft," large or small.
2. Papers: (a) Report on Geographic Congress (opened at Washington, Sept. 8; see article by Cyrus C. Adams, "The Gathering of Geographers in America," *Review of Reviews* for October); (b) The Evolution of the Automobile; (c) Humor of the Presidential Campaign; (d) Character Sketch of United States Senator George F. Hoar.
3. Address: The Function of Letters of Acceptance in American politics.
4. Readings: (a) From "Frenzied Finance," by Thomas W. Lawson, *Everybody's* for October; (b) From "The History of the Standard Oil Company," by Ida M. Tarbell, *McClure's* for October; (c) From "How the American Boy Is Educated," by Walter L. Hervey, *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for November; (d) From "Inoculating the Ground," by Gilbert H. Grosvenor, *Century* for October; (e) From "The American City," by Delos F. Wilcox.
5. Discussion: What is the use of calling another peace conference at The Hague on the part of the United States?
6. Cartoon Exhibition: Award prize to the person who selects and brings to the

meeting the best campaign cartoon for exhibition.

#### FOREIGN

1. Map Review. Depict progress of Russo-Japanese war during the month.
2. Character Study: Lafcadio Hearn as interpreter of Japan to the world. Sketch romantic career to his death Sept. 26. and give extracts from "Stray Leaves from Strange Literature," "In Ghostly Japan," "Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan," "Reveries and Studies in New Japan," "Japan, an Attempt at Interpretation," etc.
3. Paper: Results of the British Expedition into Tibet (treaty announced Sept. 15).
4. Readings: (a) From "Russian Poverty and Business Distress," by E. J. Dillon, *Review of Reviews* for October; (b) From "Czarism at Bay," by Karl Blind, *North American Review* for October; (c) From "The Japanese Spirit," by Nobushige Amenomori, *Atlantic* for October; (d) From "The Immediate Future of Ireland," by T. P. O'Connor, *Cosmopolitan* for October; (e) From "Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century," by F. M. Warren.
5. Discussion: What ought to be declared contraband of war?

# Chautauqua Spare Minute Course

The Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, complete in the pages of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for 1904-05 beginning with September, has been arranged to meet the demand for a short course of systematic reading in place of haphazard, hit or miss reading to no purpose. The course consists of the seven leading serial topics entitled, "Social Progress in Europe," "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany," "German Master Musicians," "Civic Lessons from Europe," "Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare," "How the American Boy is Educated," and "Nature Study" (the last named beginning in October).

This brief course offers to individuals a means of making the time spent in reading count for something during the year. It is planned to give a background, a standard of judgment, power of discrimination, sense of proportion, in a word education along lines of present-day importance, that will make all one's reading of use to him.

Additional articles and the regular departments of the magazine relate to features of the course and constitute important sidelights upon it. "Highways and Byways" editorial comment on the current events with special reference to the serial topics, "Survey of Civic Betterment," "Talk About Books," "News Summary," programs, helps and hints, and special supplementary articles represent a useful and entertaining variety.

One does not need to become a member of any organization to get the benefit of this "group plan" of reading. There is no membership fee and the course is offered to individual readers complete in the magazine for the year.

## RECOGNITION FROM CHAUTAUQUA

In the last magazine of the year containing Spare Minute Course material, blanks will be printed upon the filling out of which a Spare Minute Course Certificate will be awarded by Chautauqua Institution.

Persons will be entitled to a certificate who have read the Spare Minute Course serials named above. These will be known as "Specified Reading." For reading the other "recommended" serials and departments in the magazine a seal on the certificate will be awarded.

## SPARE MINUTE PROGRAMS

The Chautauqua Spare Minute Course is especially adapted to the use of clubs and societies. It should be particularly helpful to

clubs of men, school literary societies, church young people's societies, organizations in shops and stores, and other groups of busy people with few opportunities and limited time.

The program suggestions outlined under this heading will be based upon features of the "Social Progress Year" of topics as presented from month to month in this magazine. It is better to choose a few program suggestions and carry them out well than to try to do too much at a single session.

**Quiz:** How Much Useful Reading can be accomplished in 20 minutes per day. Ask for estimates, suggestive plans and actual experiences.

**Summary:** Epitomize article on "Reaction and the Republican Revival," by F. A. Ogg, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

**Discussion:** Resolved that government by a true aristocracy is preferable to government by pure democracy. (Compare Thomas Jefferson's theories with Andrew Jackson's in this connection).

**Readings:** (a) From "Forestry in Germany," by Raphael G. Zon, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* (Extracts showing governmental control); (b) From "Federal Government of Switzerland," by Marvin R. Vincent; (c) From "A Country Without Strikes," by Henry Demarest Lloyd; (d) From "Hanover, Hildesheim, Brunswick," by Clara M. Stearns, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*; (e) From Judson's "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," chapters V, VII and VII; (f) From "How the American Boy Is Educated," articles by Walter L. Hervey, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

**Papers:** (a) Music as an Expression of National Life. (For suggestions see articles on "German Master Musicians" in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*); (6) Character Sketch of Metternich (compare with Machiavelli).

**Address:** Cures for Corruption.

Additional program material may be found in "Current Events Programs," "Suggestive Programs for Local Circles," "The Travel Club," "Civic Progress Programs," etc., on other pages of this issue of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Correspondence or inquiries may be addressed to the Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, Chautauqua, New York.



## COUNSELORS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE

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 LYMAN ABBOTT, D. D.  
 HENRY W. WARREN, D. D.  
 J. M. GIBSON, D. D.

EDWARD EVERETT HALE, D. D.  
 JAMES H. CARLISLE, LL. D.  
 WM. C. WILKINSON, D. D.  
 W. P. KANE, D. D.

MISS KATE F. KIMBALL, Executive Secretary.

### AS OTHERS SEE US

One of the most wholesome experiences of a European traveler, if he be open minded, is that of studying the ways of his neighbors, and profiting by their successes. We used to hear a good deal about the "effete monarchies of Europe," but it would seem that the remark was usually made by some stay-at-home individual. Our Chautauqua Reading Journeys will be of great value if they help those of us who may not cross the ocean, to get something of the breadth of view which the right-minded traveler secures. Apropos of our visit this month to Hanover, is the following comment made by a writer in *The Century Magazine* a few years ago:

"There is no reason in the nature of things why the streets of Hanover which are beautifully paved and kept should be better than those of Jersey City or Newark which cities are as large as Hanover and richer, though their streets are probably the meanest and forlornest in the whole civilized world."

Later on in our study of Berlin we shall give special attention to Germany's way of dealing with city problems.



### MAPS FOR THE STUDY OF GERMANY

For the study of German history, maps showing territorial changes are especially important, since not only the boundary lines of the empire were constantly taking on new relationships, but the various units ruled by the "Holy Roman Emperors," were of a most kaleidoscopic nature,

A very simple way to work out the problem is for the circle to appoint a committee of three on "maps." From The Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, New York, small outline maps of Europe can be secured at the rate of six for ten cents. Encyclopedias, school histories, and geographies can easily be found which will show the different historical periods and by the use of colored crayons the committee can easily prepare a series of very valuable maps. These should be hung on the wall at each meeting where Germany is under consideration, and readers will be surprised to find how these maps will help to unravel the tangles of European history. Desirable periods to cover are "The Empire of Charlemagne as divided in 843." "The Empire under Otto the Great," "Germany during the Reformation," "Germany at the beginning of the Thirty Years' War," "Europe in 1812," "Europe after the Congress at Vienna."

An excellent map of modern Germany can also be secured from the Chautauqua Office for twenty cents.



"Oh wonderful the way  
 That leads from darkness to the perfect day."

One of the early members of the C. L. S. C. who joined the Class of '82 at Chautauqua in 1878 was Mr. Albert M. Martin of Pittsburg. With his keen interest in progressive movements Mr. Martin was quick to see what a splendid opportunity there was for Chautauqua in his own city, and on his return home he

organized the Pittsburg Circle with three hundred members, the largest Chautauqua Circle in the world. From those early days of 1878 Mr. Martin kept up a vital connection with the C. L. S. C. until ill health made active coöperation impossible.

His position as "General Secretary," to which he was appointed soon after the C. L. S. C. was organized, gave him many opportunities to serve the cause by tongue and pen. A strong influence among the local Chautauquans of Pittsburg, he also gave substantial aid in working out the plans of the C. L. S. C. system in its formative period. His little hand-book on "Local



THE LATE A. M. MARTIN

Honorary Secretary of the C. L. S. C.

Circles and How to Conduct Them" was the inspiration of many a circle. At Chautauqua he was active as a Round Table leader and after the death of Rev. A. H. Gillet, the original C. L. S. C. "Messenger," was appointed to that position. Mr. Martin was widely known among the older Chautauquans, who while they will regret to learn of his recent death in California can but feel grateful that he is no longer called upon to keep up his heroic struggle against odds that were hopeless. He will be remembered as a brave, cheerful spirit, quietly and effectively contributing to Chautauqua's welfare by every means in his power and asking no recognition beyond that of further opportunities for service.

Within the past six months another C. L. S. C. leader who won distinction in a foreign field has also been called away. Mrs. Theresa M. Mackay, formerly Miss Campbell, first carried the C. L. S. C. to South Africa in 1884, organizing the work among the girls of the graduating class of the Huguenot Seminary. Miss

Campbell soon after went to another part of Africa, but the C. L. S. C. work under the leadership of Miss M. E. Landfear continued to reach other graduates of the seminary and through them and others many isolated homes all through Southern Africa.



There are two types of men who help us in the struggle. The one is in the midst of the battle, the smoke stings his eyes. He knows he must strike and strike hard, and he must carry the issue through struggle in the battle. To this class of men belong Aeschylus, Dante, Michael Angelo, Victor Hugo, Carlyle. These are conscious of the struggle, of the necessity that we work while it is day.

The other class climbs the heights to see the prospect; they see the issue of life and anticipate what is coming at the end. To the second class of men of large spiritual vision, who can see the great struggle of life, it is all the more abstract, more in the air. Sophocles, Raphael, Goethe, Emerson belong in this second class. If we accept the one class, let us accept the other. Let us be glad that it takes many kinds of minds and hearts to make the world better.—*Edward Howard Griggs.*



#### NOTES

Miss Merington's review of the four C. L. S. C. books for this year in the department of "Talk About Books" in this issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, puts before the reader in a very picturesque way the relation of the various parts of the course to the whole, and will be very illuminating to old as well as to new Chautauquans. It is also very useful as a campaign document. Mark this part of the magazine and send it to some friend who is unacquainted with Chautauqua work and you will have done a good service to that friend and to Chautauqua.

Some years ago THE CHAUTAUQUAN published a "Reading Journey through France" consisting of nine articles upon Paris and the provinces. This Reading Journey has since then been published in pamphlet form and circle program makers will find it very useful as offering supplementary material for the use of the circle.

Its bibliographies are very full and discriminating. The pamphlet can be secured from the Chautauqua Office, Chautauqua, N. Y., for one dollar. In clubs of ten or more at reduced rates.



NAVNAÆN SCHOOLHOUSE, NORWAY

(See Norwegian letter in "News from the Circles.")

#### A BRIEF OUTLINE OF GERMAN HISTORY

The Reading Journey for this month introduces us to one of the oldest towns in Germany—Hildesheim—giving us an opportunity to look into the beginnings of German history, concretely illustrated in the legends and buildings of this quaint old spot. A brief outline of the great periods of German history is given here. This will be useful throughout our travels in Germany and will serve as a background into which we may fit the scenes and incidents which other places to be visited will suggest.

*Charlemagne.* 768-814.

*Louis (The Pious).* 814-840. Son of Charlemagne. A weak ruler at whose death a period of anarchy ensued for three years.

*Louis (The German).* 843-76. The Treaty of Verdun in 843 led to the division of the empire between the three sons of Louis. France fell to Charles the Bold, Germany to Louis the German and a middle territory including Italy and Lorraine to the North Sea was given to Lothar. The kingdom of the latter was soon broken up and for centuries was the source of constant feuds between France and Germany.

*A period of changes.* 876-918. The death of Louis left divisions in the empire and con-

stant readjustments. An invasion of the Northmen brought many Danes into the country. The coming of the Hungarians in large numbers was a source of great terror. The emperor Conrad at his death in 918 ceded the empire to one of his revolting nobles, Henry of Saxony.

#### THE SAXON KINGS. 919-1024.

*Henry I (The Fowler)* 918-36. Defeated both Norsemen and Hungarians and acquired territory, equipped his army with cavalry, built walled towns and gave an impulse to city life.

*Otto I (The Great)* 936-73. At Aachen at the Easter festival ambassadors were present from Italy, England and Constantinople. Otto held back the Hungarians and Slavs, was crowned Roman Emperor by Pope John XII and henceforward the empire was held by a German king. Ottos II and III succeeded him and the Saxon line closed with Henry II in 1024—a time of rebellions and a spirit of independence on the part of counts and dukes.

#### THE FRANCONIAN EMPERORS. 1024-1125.

*Conrad II.* 1024-39. Centralized power in the hands of the Emperor.

*Henry III.* 1039-1056. Henry sanctioned the "Truce of God" established by the church to restrict private warfare. Came into conflict with the papacy.

*Henry IV.* 1056-1106. Famous struggle with Hildebrand, Pope Gregory, over the respective claims of Pope and Emperor. Beginnings of crusading spirit.

*Henry V.* 1106-1125. Closed the Franconian line.

*Lothar II.* 1125-1138. A Saxon.

#### THE HOHENSTAUFEN EMPERORS. 1138-1254.

*Conrad III.* 1138-1152. A struggle between Guelphs and Ghibellines. His most powerful vassal, Henry the Lion, of Saxony, a Welf (Guelph), opposed him.

*Frederick Barbarossa.* 1152-1190. Established order in Germany. Long struggle with Pope Hadrian IV. The Lombard League of cities conspired against him. Henry the Lion (a Guelph) refused his aid. The treaty of Constance, 1183, secured the independence of the cities. Frederick drowned on his way to the Crusades.

*Later Hohenstaufens up to 1254.* Continued the struggle with the Pope. Frederick II (1215-50) a man of ability and culture, the greatest of the emperors, lived much in Italy. Not a German in character. Established University of Naples 1224. The Hohenstaufens' policy had broken Germany

into a large number of duchies, counties, marches, bishoprics, etc., all striving for independence.

#### THE GREAT INTERREGNUM. 1254-73.

(A period of anarchy.)

#### THE FIRST OF THE HAPSBURGS.

*Rudolph.* 1273-92. Elected by the seven leading princes. Having little chance in either Italy or Germany, he built up his own possessions. Secured Austria and made Vienna his residence.

#### SUCCEEDING EMPERORS. 1292-1437.

(Represented various political divisions in Germany.)

*Charles IV.* 1346-78. Secured new territory in Brandenburg, Silesia and Moravia. Established first German university at Prague, 1348. The Swiss threw off the Hapsburg yoke during this century (Sempach, 1386).

*Sigismund.* 1410-37. Rewarded Frederick of Hohenzollern for his services, with the mark of Brandenburg. His successor built on this foundation the modern kingdom of Prussia. Under Sigismund John Huss of Bohemia was burned for heresy, 1415.

#### THE HAPSBURG EMPERORS. 1438-1806.

*Frederick III.* 1440-93. Under this emperor, Charles the Bold, ruler of the great middle kingdom of Burgundy between France and Germany, attempted to add Switzerland to his territories. He was killed at Nancy. Frederick promptly secured the marriage of his own son Maximilian to Mary, daughter of Charles, and thus acquired vast possessions. Their son Philip married the heiress of Spain and became father of the famous emperor Charles V.

*Charles V.* 1519-1556. Luther declared a heretic at the Diet of Worms. Civil war in Germany over the Reformation. 1546-7.

The peace of Augsburg, 1555, gave the Lutheran church legal recognition. Charles destroyed the city of Ghent in the Netherlands. *Ferdinand II.* 1619-37; *Ferdinand III.* 1637-57. The Thirty Years' War (1618-48)



MONSRUD SCHOOLHOUSE, NORWAY

(See Norwegian letter in "News from the Circles.")

Wallenstein and Tilly on the Catholic side, followed by Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden for the Protestants—the war developed into a wide-spread struggle between Catholics and Protestants and the rival dynasties of Hapsburg and Bourbon for supremacy in Europe. Toleration finally won in the peace of Westphalia. Frederick William the "Great Elector" of Brandenburg increased his territory at this time. The rise of this state and the rivalry between its rulers and the Hapsburgs continued until 1871 when the German Empire was created. "The Holy Roman Empire" died in 1806 when at Napoleon's dictation Francis II resigned the imperial crown and became Francis I of Austria.

## ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON NOVEMBER READINGS

### THE AFTERGLOW OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

1. The Holy Roman Empire. 2. The Concordat of 1801, defining the relation of the Roman Catholic Church to the French government, and providing for the appointment of bishops and archbishops by the latter, and confirmation of the selections by the Pope. 3. The "Code Napoleon" was a compilation under the auspices of Napoleon—1804-10—of the laws of France. It is founded on the Roman or Civil law, and has been copied extensively wherever the Civil law prevails. 4. Heinrich Friedrich Stein—1757-1831—was a Prussian statesman. Chief minister of Prussia 1807-8. Exiled by Napoleon in 1808. Counsellor of the Tzar Alexander I, 1812-13, and brought about coalition of Russia and Prussia against Napoleon. 5. Frederick William II and Frederick William III.

### TWENTIETH CENTURY BELGIUM

1. Nijni Novgorod is the capital of a province of the same name in central Russia, famous as the seat of the largest annual fair in the world, held in August and September. 2. Guilio Romano, 1492-1546, was a famous Italian painter and architect, a pupil of Raphael. Veronese, 1528-1588, was an Italian painter of the Venetian school. 3. The recent van Dyck celebration took place in 1899 in Antwerp in commemoration of the three hundredth anniversary of the birth of Anthony van Dyck. 4. The Rochdale Pioneers is the name given to a coöperative workingmen's association at Rochdale, near Manchester, England. It was founded in 1844 by a number of weavers. 5. La Maison du Peuple is a socialistic coöperative association at Brussels, Belgium. See October number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

## OUTLINE OF READING AND PRO GRAMS

## C. L. S. C. MOTTOES

*"We Study the Word and the Works of God." "Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."  
"Never be Discouraged."*

## C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

OPENING DAY—October 1.  
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.  
MILTON DAY—December 9.  
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.  
LANIER DAY—February 3.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.  
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.  
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.  
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Sunday after first Tuesday.  
St. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.  
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.



## OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR DECEMBER

## DECEMBER 3-10—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "Social Progress in Europe."

Required Book: "The French Revolution." Chapters XI and XII.

## DECEMBER 10-17—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "Hanover, Hildesheim, Brunswick."

Required Book: "The French Revolution." Chapter XIII.

## DECEMBER 17-24—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "Hanover, Hildesheim, Brunswick."

Required Book: "The French Revolution." Chapter XIV.

## DECEMBER 24-31—

Vacation week.

## DECEMBER 31-JANUARY 7—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "German Master Musicians." Haydn.

Required Book: "The French Revolution." Chapters XV and XVI.



## SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

No special musical program is suggested as Mr. Surette's instructions are so definite. Circles are urged to make special arrangements for the rendering of the music by skilful students of the subject and to prepare themselves for such a meeting by learning as much as possible of the times in which the composer lived, and his relation to them.

## DECEMBER 3-10—

1. Review of "The French Revolution," Chapters XI and XII by leaders.
2. Paper: Mirabeau (see bibliography in Mathews' book).
3. Roll-call: Incidents selected from other books supplementing the two chapters above mentioned.
4. Discussion: The three French Revolutions of 1789, 1830 and 1848. In what respect were they alike and in what did they differ?
5. Book Review: Dickens' "Tale of Two Cities" with selections.

## DECEMBER 10-17—

1. Map Review of Germany today, showing location of chief cities. In connection with this a brief review of German history to the time of the Hapsburgs may be given, showing the general changes which took place between Charlemagne's time and the Hapsburg period (see suggestions in Round Table).
2. Roll-call: Incidents showing conditions of life in Germany in the eleventh to the thirteenth centuries. Occupations of the people, customs, etc. (see histories of Germany).
3. Reading: The story of the novel "Ekkehard" with selections.

4. Brief reports on origin of the Guelphs, Ghibellines, and on the career of "Henry the Lion."
5. Reading: "The Weibertrue" (see *Harper's Magazine*, Vol. 65, page 499).
6. Discussion: How differently feudalism worked itself out, in England, France and Germany and how the Church was influenced by it. Let each member look up this subject, four persons being especially appointed to lead the discussion. Encyclopedias and histories of medieval Europe will make it plain. This is a very interesting question giving a key to the individuality of these three great nations whose forms of government to-day differ in so marked a degree.

## DECEMBER 17-24.

1. Map Review: The chief cities of the Hansa League showing how they rose to importance from 1350 to 1500.
2. Roll-call: Folk-stories of the "Brothers Grimm" which illustrate German ways of living, and German ideas current among the people. These should be introduced by the leader with a brief account of the services rendered by Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm, (see bibliography).
3. Discussion: The Romanesque churches of Germany. See especially churches at Hildesheim, Mainz, Speyer, Worms. Each member should secure all available photographs or books illustrating the subject. Histories of architecture give many illustrations. The leader of the discussion should bring out clearly the chief points of the Romanesque style and various cathedrals should be compared.

4. Reading: Selections from Thackeray's "George I."

DECEMBER 31-JANUARY 7—

1. Review of "The French Revolution." Chapter XIII.
2. Reading: Carlyle's description of the celebration of July 14, 1790 (see his "French Revolution").

3. Summing up of chief points in "The French Revolution." Chapter XIV.
4. Roll-call: Incidents supplementing Chapter XIV selected from works recommended in that chapter.
5. The story of "The Reds of the Midi" with reading of selections or of "The Country in Danger" or "Madame Therese."



### THE TRAVEL CLUB

On another page of the Round Table will be found an outline of German history. Some suggestions regarding the use of maps for the study of Germany are also offered.

#### FIRST WEEK—

1. Map review of Germany today showing location of chief cities. Contrast this with maps showing Empire of Karl the Great and of Otto the Great (see paragraph in Round Table).
2. Reading: "Louis the Pious" (see "Oman," "Milman," and "Larned," as suggested in bibliography).
3. Brief character studies: "Henry the Fowler" and "Otto the Great."
4. Roll-call: Early German Legends (see "Curious Myths of the Middle Ages," S. Baring Gould, or histories of Germany).
5. Book Review with reading of selections: "Elkehard," by Joseph Victor von Scheffel (see also "Studies in German Literature").
6. Discussion: "Germans and Americans," by Münsterberg, *Atlantic* ('99) 84: 396. This interesting article by a native German now an American and a professor at Harvard brings out in quite startling fashion the attitude of each nation toward the other, with the reasons for this strange misunderstanding.

#### SECOND WEEK—

1. Paper: Henry IV and his struggle with the Papacy (see histories in bibliography).
2. Roll-call: Incidents relating to the eleventh and twelfth centuries, conditions of the people, customs, etc.
3. Brief reports on: Origin of the Guelphs, Ghibellines, and on "Henry the Lion."
4. Reading: "The Weibertrue" (see *Harper's Magazine*, Vol. 65, page 499).
5. Discussion: How differently feudalism worked itself out, in England, France and Germany and how the Church was influenced by it. Let each member look

up this subject, four persons being especially appointed to lead the discussion. Encyclopedias and histories of medieval Europe will make it plain. This is a very interesting question giving a key to the individuality of these three great nations whose forms of government today differ so decidedly.

#### THIRD WEEK—

1. Brief reports on varieties of knighthood in the middle ages—The Knights of St. John, The Knights Templars, The Teutonic Knights.
2. Reading: Longfellow's "Poems of Places." "The Kyffhäuser Myth."
3. Papers: "Frederick Barbarossa and Hadrian IV"; "How the Hohenstaufens helped the disintegration of Germany."
4. Discussion: The Romanesque churches of Germany. See especially churches at Hildesheim, Mainz, Speyer, Worms. Each member should secure all available photographs or books illustrating the subject. Histories of architecture give many illustrations. The leader of the discussion should bring out clearly the chief points of the Romanesque style and various cathedrals should be compared.
5. Roll-call: Folk-stories of the "Brothers Grimm" which illustrate German ways of living and German ideas current among the people. These should be introduced by the leader with a brief account of the services rendered by Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm (see bibliography).

#### FOURTH WEEK—

1. Roll-call: Incidents in German history suggested by the Reading Journey article.
2. Reading: Lessing at Wolfenbüttel (see "Studies in German Literature," by Hochdoerfer, or Lives of Lessing).
3. Map Review: The chief cities of the Hansa League.
4. Paper: How the Hansa towns won and held their liberties (see bibliography).
5. Reading: Thackeray's "George I."



### THE LIBRARY SHELF

The history of archaeology is full of romantic stories. It would seem as if Mother Earth occasionally felt a twinge of remorse for the jealous way in which she had hidden her priceless treasures, and on a sudden impulse revealed some long cherished secrets to a careless passer by. It was somewhat in this fashion that Hildesheim became possessed of her famous service of Roman silver, the joy not only of the antiquarian but of those who love beautiful forms and the evidences of artistic skill.

On the 17th of October, 1868, the Twenty-

ninth Hanoverian infantry were making excavations for shooting-stands not far from Hildesheim, when a soldier's pickaxe brought to light a silver vessel. The surprise of the discoverers became amazement when further search revealed some sixty pieces of Roman table service. Many of these were so exquisitely wrought as to leave no doubt that they had been the property of a Roman personage of distinction. The importance of the discovery led to further search by competent archaeologists, and various fragments, handles of vases, etc., were added to the collection



which was then carefully housed in the Antiquarium of the Royal Museums of Berlin. "Der Hildesheimer Silberfund," the official publication of this collection, prepared by Erich Pernice and Franz Winter of the Berlin Museum, gives some interesting details re-



SILVER BOWLS DECORATED WITH LAUREL

garding the treasure, and also a series of beautiful plates illustrating the objects.

All sorts of conjectures have been made regarding the possible ownership of the service. Some would have it that this was the property of the ill-fated Varus whose Roman legions were overwhelmed by Hermann in the Teutoburger Forest, in the days of Augustus, but a careful study of the collection gives no evidence which may connect it with Varus or any other historical character. Most of the pieces are of the Augustan Age, one or two are earlier. Others are so different in style and so inferior in workmanship that it seems probable that they were the work of northern craftsmen. The vessels show wear and some fine pieces have repairs or additions of inferior work. It is not certain, therefore, that they were buried by their Roman owners before a hasty fight, as is commonly stated. They may have passed into German hands.

It was no light matter to set up the various articles in their original form for each was not made from a single piece of metal. The handles and bases and parts of the decorations were made separately and to identify and restore missing parts to their original position taxed the wisdom of the Museum directors.

Our illustrations show two of the most note-

worthy pieces of the collection. The larger of these is a "crater" or mixing bowl for wine and water. The outer vessel was cast and the decorative work finished by chiseling. Within it was a plain vessel which served as a lining. This piece which is about fifteen inches high dates from the second half of the first century, B. C. The decoration of the "crater" is a fine example of Roman metal work. Notice the playful cupids swinging on branches, spearing dolphins and otherwise disporting themselves. The water motive is further suggested by the shells and even by the wings of the two griffins, which terminate in the long leaves of a water plant.

The other vessel, which is between three and four inches high, shows indications of having had handles which are now missing. Its original base is also gone. The sprays of laurel leaves which are symmetrical but not identical show the freedom with which the artist worked and are an excellent illustration of the naturalistic decoration in which the Romans excelled. This vessel belongs to the early part of the reign of Augustus. The other pieces of the collection embrace a variety of styles—plates, drinking cups, saucepans, a three-legged folding table, etc. The service is incomplete and may have been much larger. It shows evidences of much wear in ancient times. If it could tell its own story, what scenes of revelry might it not chronicle! The original collection, as stated, is in Berlin but the Field Columbian Museum of Chicago contains facsimiles of some of the chief pieces showing their general character though, of course, they cannot reproduce the very beautiful effect of the silver originals. The volume "Der Hildesheimer Silberfund" will be found in the larger university libraries and even persons who cannot read the German text will gain some idea of the appearance of the collection from the very attractive illustrations.



SILVER CRATER OR MIXING BOWL FOR WINE  
AND WATER

## NEWS FROM THE CIRCLES

"My prediction regarding a circle in the Klondike, has come true," said Pendragon as he turned toward the 1908 contingent at the Round Table. "You will remember we had an inquiry from Bonanza, Yukon Territory, and here is a letter ordering six sets of books and magazines. This circle is going to begin with last year's course for they are cut off from mail facilities, except letters, after October and couldn't get their CHAUTAUQUANS. But by this plan they will have the complete course in their hands in October and we shall wait with interest to hear of their progress. I want to congratulate the Class of 1908 also on some large accessions to their membership from various localities. Our Kansas delegate here, reports sixty-five new members as enrolled at the Cawker City Assembly and but for floods which interfered with the programs of both the Winfield and Ottawa Assemblies Kansas would have had a still larger enrollment." "In Pennsylvania we are doing some good work, also, for the new *Tennyson Class*," responded a teacher. "At the Venango County Institute we enrolled nearly one hundred teachers and at the Pennsylvania Chautauqua at Mt. Gretna the interest was very keen."

"The new members will be especially interested also," continued Pendragon, "in hearing about the ringing of the Bryant Bell at Chautauqua on Opening Day." "About fifty people took part in the ceremony," responded the delegate from Chautauqua, "and we made the bell give many a vigorous peal so that not the remotest member on the islands of the seas should fail to hear it. After the echoes had died away we held our annual Opening Day picnic which through the kindness of one of the cottagers we celebrated in doors, as the day was cold. In the informal speeches which followed, frequent references were made to the members of the circle in other parts of the world and all felt that the new year had been 'rung in' in a way which you would all approve could you have been present."



"We are just getting started in our circle, and I should be very grateful for hints on reviewing the lesson," interposed a new member from Minnesota. "One of the most important things in a circle is good leadership and it isn't always easy to get," commented a member from Oregon. "Nevertheless you can do a good deal by dividing the responsibility," added the president of the Eureka C. L. S. C. of New York. "In our circle we have a president who with a committee on program arranges the programs for half a dozen meetings ahead. We assign each required book and each CHAU-

TAUQUAN series to a special leader who conducts the review of that particular part of the lesson whenever it is called for in the program. That gives each leader just one thing to do and he arranges his review either as a quiz or by requiring certain members to sum up parts of the chapter or to report on certain topics, etc. Sometimes he uses a blackboard and with diagrams illustrates the relative importance of dates, periods, etc. There are many ways of doing it but the chief thing is to have some one definitely responsible and then don't require too much of him. One book is enough for a leader."



Pendragon here introduced the secretary of the Western Presbyterian Church Circle at Washington, D. C., saying: "This is one of the circles whose members belong to the graduating class of this year, and for the benefit of our new members especially we want this delegate to give us a bird's-eye view of what the four years may mean to a group of Chautauquans."

"Our circle was organized with a membership of twenty-six," replied Miss Turton, "but about one-half of that number left us before the close of the first year. This would seem discouraging to an outsider, but the remainder proved such faithful members, and were so thoroughly congenial that with summer outings and occasional socials to enliven the routine of study we kept together for four years; a few left us, but others were added, until at closing we find nine faithful workers."

"Our circle was not what would be called a local one, for we had members from Wyoming, Utah, Louisiana, Illinois and Massachusetts, so that the variety of character study furnished by the representatives from those states was of itself a good education for those who had never traveled far from home. We had the good fortune to have for our president one who had in pioneer days traveled from Kentucky, and by degrees reached Wyoming, and many were the interesting experiences of western life and practical illustrations of the difficulties of the labor question, methods of transportation, and other matters showing a personal knowledge of the West which the members listened to as week after week he led us through 'Racial Composition of the American People.'

"The gentlemen of our circle were chiefly department clerks and before the close of our four years of study three of them had received promotions; whether this was due to the

mental stimulus of our study, the inspiration of such pleasant gatherings, or the inherent strong character of the western man we must leave it to wiser ones to judge. The practical and political parts of the study were left almost entirely to the stronger members, while the ladies were content with the literature, travel and —— sociability. One of our members after a year of study took up a course of law for one year; another who served very successfully as our president for the second year, took up a legal course, completing the three years in two of hard study.

"Our closing exercises were of unusual interest, the president reading an admirable paper on 'The Geographical March of History.' The paper was suggested by the studies of the past four years, and showed much painstaking and research in its preparation. The secretary read an interesting article describing experiences in making investigations in hitherto unexplored cañons of the West.

"We have learned much in the four years of study, but what is most forcibly brought before us in looking back is that mutual help and encouragement has been the great factor in helping us to attain the completion of the course. In the strenuous rush of modern American life, where every man is striving to reach the top of the ladder, may we each remember that life is only one step at a time, and always be thoughtful and ready to help the one on the first step of the upward climb so that with them, as with us, the horizon may widen as they climb."



"Your allusion to last year's course," said a member from Cincinnati, "reminds me that we want to express our appreciation of last year's articles on American Sculpture. Four of us have recently returned from St. Louis and I can assure you some of the works of art there seemed like long lost friends to us after having made their acquaintance through THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"If any of you will glance through these letters," said Pendragon indicating a pile of documents, "you will notice how many clubs are using our courses. Let me remind you that you can do good service to your neighbors by calling the attention of clubs which are not ready for the regular C. L. S. C. course, to some of Chautauqua's other study plans—the Civic Programs and Current Events Programs each month in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, the Special Japan Study Course complete in the August CHAUTAUQUAN, etc."

"Apropos of the Japan course, I'd like to say," commented a member from Harlem, New

York City, "that some of our circle who were at home last summer formed a Japan Study Class and had a delightful time getting acquainted with the fascinating civilization of the Sunrise Kingdom."



"I've been cramming up on German history, if you'll excuse the expression." The speaker proved to be a vivacious little lady whose enthusiasm was so contagious that criticism of her English was quite disarmed. "I didn't know a thing about it and I thought I'd be ready to appreciate 'Hanover, Hildesheim and Brunswick,' so I asked my son who is in the High School to lend me his medieval history. 'Awfully slow book, mother,' he said with a puzzled look as he gave it to me. But I think being forty-five instead of fifteen must make a difference. I've been fairly bewitched by it. My boy looked as if he thought I'd lost my mind when I asked him what relation Henry III of Germany was to Tolstoy! So I gave him a copy of Tolstoy's letter to the London Times protesting against the present war. It's published in a ten cent form, you know, and after he had read it he went back and hunted up Henry III. 'Mother,' he said, 'isn't it funny that people are so much alike whether they live in the eleventh century or the twentieth. Henry III tried to stop war and couldn't but Tolstoy isn't a bit discouraged. Plucky of him, isn't it?' I've had some delightful chats with my boy over 'Medieval Europe' and he remarked the other day that Chautauqua was 'great.'"



"We've had much the same feeling out here in Iowa," commented a member from Creston. "We had our first Chautauqua Assembly in Creston this summer and as your boy says, it was 'great.' The weather was fine, the program good and people took hold most heartily. Our three Chautauqua Circles combined and provided a rest tent which was very much appreciated. Many people became interested in the C. L. S. C. and Mrs. Riser of Des Moines did good service as Round Table leader. Next year we plan to have a Recognition Day and a completely organized C. L. S. C. department."



Just here a messenger brought in a substantial looking letter bearing the Norwegian postmark. "This must be from our 1906 member in Norway, a Norse teacher," said Pendragon as he held up two photographs. "These you see are marked 'Navnaen School House, where I have taught these ten years,' and 'Monsrud School House where I have had

one class for seven years.' Here also is a copy of the *Norse School News* with an article on Chautauqua and several illustrations, but I must read you his letter for we know him of old as a most enthusiastic Chautauquan:

"Navnaen, Norway, July 21, 1904.

"By the same post as this letter I send my memoranda, filled to the best of my ability. Whether they merit the White Seal I do not know; but I do know the answering of the questions has given me pleasure as well as benefit.

"Looking back at the studies of my American year I must say that I never learned so much in any two years' reading before,—last year an exception—as by this single year. What a country you Americans have, and how you have developed it! A very common error among us Norsemen is that the American is a materialist; but my Chautauqua years,—and especially the last one,—have given me quite another notion. I think we Norsemen ought to make new Viking raids, this once to America, in search not of gold and of silver but of new ideals. Be sure of it, the healthy practical idealism of America will in its time make heart-strings resound here in Norway too.

"To ask me which feature of this year's course I have enjoyed most, would be to perplex me very much; for all the study matter has been equally well and scholarly prepared. But if I were to name any book or magazine series specially, I should say that "Evolution of Industrial Society" and "Racial Composition of the American People" have been most profitable to me. The book of Richard Ely has given me a completely new understanding of existing society, its problems and its possibilities for the future. But, let me repeat it: This American Year as a whole, in my judgment, is unique, and it has so strengthened my love for America generally and Chautauqua specially that I must needs see both in 1906.

"I am glad to tell you that I have already made some use of what I have learned this winter. I have prepared a series of five papers on "Industrial Society" and read them to the pupils of the Extension School. The principal of that school, at the close of my lecture, said to me: "We shall all be good radicals and better Socialist fighters for having heard these lectures." My compliments to Mr. Richard Ely. I send the greeting to you; please forward it to his address.

"Speaking of that same principal; once he said to me, "I do not understand an English word, but I understand that something is doing you great good just now, and I guess it is the influence of the place with the difficult Indian name which I can't pronounce without stammering." He was not far from the mark there, and I add: I shall try to make the magic of "that difficult Indian name" felt in my neighborhood. For no Chautauquan should forget: The spirit of Chautauqua is Social Service.

"And now my thought is crossing the ocean and four hundred miles of American earth. I see the glorious "Hall in the Grove," the center of our happy, world-wide circle. I see my fellow Chautauquans assembled at the "Round Table," and I greet them with these words: Look upward, inward, onward and outward! Never give up, but go to work with that will which conquers all difficulties! Long live America, and long live Chautauqua; America can never die, while Chautauqua and Chautauqua spirit is living.

"Your loyal fellow Chautauquan,

"OLAV MADSHUS."



"If Chautauqua can kindle such a blazing fire as this in far-off Norway," commented a young man from Nebraska, "you can imagine what it is doing in our own country. I live in South Nebraska, in the village of Upland, numbering about four hundred inhabitants, and the center of a farming community. Our circle is made up chiefly of young people, teachers and business men and others who lead very busy lives. It has been a perfect boon to us who have not had the advantages of a college education. Every member has coöperated splendidly in trying to make our meetings interesting, and we have had occasional social meetings which were an event in the community. One feature that we found of great profit has been an interchange with a neighboring circle at Hildreth, another small village, eight miles distant. This circle, by the way, was organized by one of our own members. The Hildreth circle gave a play this winter, and they are doing all in their power to brighten the life of the community and to help along its intellectual growth."

## REPORTS FROM SUMMER ASSEMBLIES FOR 1904

### PLAINVILLE, CONNECTICUT

The Connecticut Chautauqua Assembly in connection with the Plainville (Connecticut) Camp Meeting Association, closed a most successful four weeks' session on August 8. Recognition Day was observed, the address being made by Bishop John H. Vincent, who presented diplomas to forty-eight graduates. The progress of the assembly has been steady and rapid. New cottages are being built each year; the association is out of debt, and a new audi-

torium has been recently erected. Among the contemplated improvements is the building of a new dining hall.

### MALVERN, IOWA

The Mills County, Iowa, Chautauqua held its first assembly this year, the session being a great success. It is intended to start C. L. S. C. work next year.

### BELOIT, KANSAS

The Epworth Chautauqua of Beloit, Kansas, held a very successful session during its past

season. As its name indicates, it is largely under the control of the Epworth League, but the program contained features of interest to everyone. The history of the assembly during the past twelve years has shown how it has become a part of the life of the people of Northwest Kansas. Ministerial, Sunday School, and Epworth League conferences vied with musical events and popular entertainments in drawing crowds, on some days numbering 7,500. Among the prominent speakers were Bishop Joseph F. Berry, Dr. W. Anderson Quayle, Judge E. W. Cunningham, of the Kansas Supreme Court, Congressman W. A. Reeder and W. A. Calderhead and Hon. Ed. N. Hoch.

#### OWENSBORO, KENTUCKY

The Seven Hills Chautauqua, of Owensboro, Kentucky, closed its third annual assembly with a larger attendance than ever before. The attractions were such as appealed strongly to the people in the locality and the greatest interest was manifested. Among the prominent speakers were Sam Jones and George Stewart.

#### LUDINGTON, MICHIGAN

The Epworth League Assembly of Ludington, Mich., reports an attendance much larger than in former years. Among the improvements of the present season were twelve new cottages, spacious tennis courts and golf links. The feature of greatest interest was the Bible school conducted by Professor Charles Horsewell. Judging from its influence the prospects for the future of the Assembly look bright.

#### LAKE ORION, MICHIGAN

The Michigan Baptist Assembly, held August 11 to 21, at Lake Orion, Michigan, was purely a denominational affair, and consequently was lacking in many of the features that make up the program at other assemblies. The program consisted, during the morning hours of devotional Bible study, and in the afternoon and evening of popular lectures, missionary addresses, musical entertainments, etc. Among those on the program were Dr. R. S. MacArthur and Dr. E. E. Chivers, both of New York, Miss Mary G. Burdette, Mrs. Julia L. Austin and Rev. Daniel Shepardson of Chicago, Dr. H. C. Mabie, of Boston and Rev. E. G. Mullins, president of the Theological Seminary of Louisville, Kentucky.

#### ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY

The Jewish Chautauqua Summer Assembly was held at Atlantic City, New Jersey, from the tenth to the thirty-first of July, inclusive, under the direction of the Chancellor, Dr.

Henry Berkowitz, the president, Mr. Jacob Gimbel, and the secretary, Mr. Isaac Hassler, all of Philadelphia.

New features included a Seminary for rabbis, teachers and specialists in Jewish studies, conducted by Dr. Solomon Schechter, president of the Jewish Theological Seminary, of New York, and Professor Max Margolis, of the University of California; a series of careful discussions and conferences on the curriculum of Jewish religious schools, participated in by a large number of teachers and other persons interested in school work; a special class in Hebrew for teachers, conducted by Rabbi Gerson B. Levi, of Helena, Arkansas; a popular conference on "The Stage as an Educational Force," participated in by Mr. Sydney Rosenfeld, of New York, and Jacob M. Gordin, of Brooklyn, well known playwrights; addresses by Hon. Frank P. Sargent, United States Commissioner of Immigration, Rear Admiral Melville, U. S. N., Hon. Simon Wolf, of Washington, D. C., Jacob H. Schiff, of New York, Dr. Talcott Williams, of Philadelphia, and others. A week was devoted to a course in Applied Philanthropy, in which leading specialties in social work participated. There were also the usual general features.

#### BINGHAMTON, NEW YORK

The 1904 season of the Carmel Grove, Chautauqua, Binghamton, New York, excelled in every way any previous year. The attendance was much larger, reaching fully four thousand on the larger days. Two lectures or sermons were given every day and every evening was made attractive by first class musical talent, instrumental and vocal. Among the noted speakers were the Rev. Dr. William F. Anderson, Rev. Dr. John Krantz, of New York City, Rev. David Spencer, D. D., of Japan, Rev. Elliott A. Boyle, D. D., of Camden, New Jersey, Rev. Charles Mead, D. D., of Hoboken, New Jersey, Rev. Thomas E. Bell, D. D., of Buffalo, Rev. Dr. Ward Platt, Rev. Dr. W. R. Wedderspoon, of Asbury Park, New Jersey, Rev. Dr. George Murray Colville, of Racine, Wisconsin and Rev. Patrick J. Kain, D. D., of Philadelphia.

Miss Louise Knapp of Syracuse University had charge of the Round Table and C. L. S. C. literature, and from the interest shown we expect to secure from seventy-five to one hundred C. L. S. C. readers for 1905. Although a large number of the C. L. S. C. alumni were in attendance, we had no graduating exercises for our Chautauqua readers, as most of them prefer to go to the Mother Chautauqua for such exercises. We are in hopes, however, of arrang-

ing for the proper observance of Recognition Day next year.

## DEVILS LAKE, NORTH DAKOTA

There was a marked increase in the sale of season tickets at the Devils Lake Chautauqua this year. This was doubtless due to the management making more of the educational features. In addition to the C. L. S. C. work there were classes in painting, German, Bible study, a well equipped kindergarten, and a boys' and girls' club almost three hundred strong. Some of the best lectures during the Assembly were given at the Round Table meetings. Among the noted speakers were Richard Handey, Prof. E. B. Swift, S. M. Speedon, Pres. Guy L. Benton, Dr. Iyenaga and Hinton White.

Recognition Day was observed July 16. Mrs. Ora Brummette-Swift who has had charge of the C. L. S. C. work for a number of years conducted the services. The audience was larger than at previous assemblies. The address, delivered by Dr. Walter M. Walker, abounded in helpful suggestions. His subject was Making the Most of Life. Mrs. Bessie Scoville, State President of the Minnesota W. C. T. U., was presented with a diploma by Mrs. Swift who said that in the whole state of Minnesota there was no Chautauqua from which Mrs. Scoville could graduate in the C. L. S. C. and receive her diploma. The day closed with a reception for Mrs. Scoville.

## BETHESDA, OHIO

The fourteenth session of the Epworth Chautauqua Assembly of Bethesda, Ohio, began on August 14 and continued for one week. The attendance was fairly good, but rainy weather caused many to stay away. A brilliant program was carried out, with departments in Art, Bible Study, Elocution, Music, Sunday School Work, Church Congress, Physical Culture, C. L. S. C., etc. Recognition Day was August 19, but, as there were no graduates this year, no special address was given. Dr. E. L. Eaton, Dr. William A. Colledge, Rev. C. W. Smith, Rev. P. U. Hawkins and others spoke on the C. L. S. C. course of 1904-8. Rev. Hawkins will remain in charge of this department and will endeavor to induce pastors to organize circles in towns in which they reside.

Among the noted lecturers appearing this season were Dr. S. L. Krebs, Dr. E. L. Eaton, Dr. W. A. Colledge and Dr. T. Iyenaga.

A new hotel, costing \$5,000, was one of the improvements on the grounds that did much for the success of the Assembly.

## CINCINNATI, OHIO

The Mount Lookout Chautauqua, at Cincinnati, Ohio, under the auspices of the Mount

Lookout M. E. Church, held a most interesting and valuable five day session beginning June 5. Sermons, lectures, talks and musical entertainments were given each evening. Among those on the program were Rev. George M. Hammell, Prof. and Mrs. J. E. Sherwood, Prof. J. G. Porter, Miss Spellmire and Miss Cranston.

## GLADSTONE PARK, OREGON

The eleventh annual assembly of the Willamette Valley Chautauqua Association was held from the twelfth to the twenty-fourth of July at Gladstone Park, Oregon. The attendance was large, fully thirty thousand persons being present at the various sessions. Special features, such as Grand Army, Woman's, W. C. T. U. and Pioneer's days, brought out large crowds. Among the persons of prominence who made up the program, were Captain Richmond Pearson Hobson, Dr. George W. White, of San Francisco, Pres. Willis Chatman Hawley, Dr. Thomas McClary, of Minneapolis, Mrs. Marian A. White, of Chicago, Rev. Howard N. Smith, Mr. Herbert Bashford, Hon. Lou J. Beauchamp, of Columbus, Ohio, Mrs. Harriet Coburn Sanderson, Hon John F. Caples, Portland, Oregon, and Mr. Newell Dwight Hillis, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Classes were organized in United States History, Early Northwest History, Pedagogy, Art, Domestic Science, English Literature, Bible Study, Music, Elocution and Physical Culture, and a large enrollment was secured and much interest shown in the work. The various colleges and schools of the Northwest established headquarters, which emphasized the educational features of the Assembly.

## ASHLAND, OREGON

The Southern Oregon Chautauqua was held from the 12th to the 22d of July. Among the features were a summer school for teachers, schools of Bible Study, Cookery, American Literature, Geography of Commerce, Biology, Music and Stenography. The Round Table, under the direction of Mr. C. B. Watson, was of much interest. Among the speakers were Dr. Newell D. Hillis, Capt. R. P. Hobson, Dr. Stanley L. Krebs and Hon. Lou J. Beauchamp. The attendance this season, the largest in twelve years, has warranted plans for improvement, prominent among which is to be an enlarged auditorium and more beautiful grounds.

## MT. GRETN, PENNSYLVANIA

The Pennsylvania Chautauqua Assembly, beginning at Mt. Gretna, Pennsylvania, on July 1, finished its most successful season on the fifteenth of August. The attendance, while

always large, excelled that of any former year. The summer schools had an enrollment of one hundred and seventy of whom eighty-nine were teachers.

Recognition Day was observed on July 29, with its usual impressive ceremony. Unfortunately, but one member of the class of 1904 could be present, but many of the alumni were on hand. Dr. S. C. Schumucker gave the address, choosing for his subject The Great Chautauqua Movement. After tracing its history, he alluded to the fact that the Pennsylvania Chautauqua has the same spirit and methods as the mother Chautauqua. Following the exercises an Alumni Banquet was held with thirty graduates and several guests of honor. Inspired by the easy and humorous example of the toast-master—Professor L. E. McGinnes—the occasion proved to be perhaps the most enjoyable of the season for those participating in it.

Pennsylvania Chautauqua is on a sound basis, and the feeling is that each year will exceed its predecessor, and that, with the C. L. S. C. work as an incentive, its influence will keep growing.

#### BIGSTONE LAKE, SOUTH DAKOTA

The attendance at Bigstone Lake, South Dakota, Assembly was about twenty-five hundred and a good healthy interest was shown in the work. The C. L. S. C. was under the charge of Mrs. Etta Vosburg and as a result of her efforts twenty-five new members were enrolled. Recognition Day was observed July 11 and Dr. Parks made an address.

#### MONTEAGLE, TENNESSEE

At Monteagle, Tennessee, Recognition Day was observed on July 21 by the setting apart of a "C. L. S. C. Night". The grounds were beautifully illuminated with Japanese lanterns, and the only graduate present—Miss Susie Ingham, of Yazoo, Mississippi—escorted by a procession of flower girls, was awarded her diploma, and an address was made by Miss C. S. Battaile, who has charge of the C. L. S. C. work at Monteagle. Following the exercises, a reception was held, participated in by the members of the C. L. S. C. and the Christian Endeavor delegates who were holding a convention at the same place.

#### WELLSBURG, WEST VIRGINIA

Owing to the lack of railroad facilities the "Chautauqua of the Panhandle" at Wellsburg, W. Va., was dependent upon the nearby population for its attendance. The Bellview Camp Meeting Association, which had charge of the exercises, reports a successful season, with crowds aggregating from a few hundred up to five thousand.

#### MADISON, WISCONSIN

The Monona Lake Chautauqua Assembly at Madison, Wisconsin, was not so successful as usual, due largely to the St. Louis Exposition. About 200 C. L. S. C. members were on hand and the Round Table exercises in charge of Rev. W. J. McKay, were well attended. It is probable that at the November meeting of the trustees certain improvements will be decided on.

## Talk About Books

**THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.** By Prof. Shailer Mathews, of the University of Chicago. Pp. 297.

**TEN FRENCHMEN OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.** By Prof. F. M. Warren of Yale. Pp. 262.

**THE STATES GENERAL,** the first part of Erckmann-Chatrian's "Story of a Peasant," translated by Louis E. Van Norman. Pp. 262.

**INTRODUCTORY STUDIES IN GERMAN LITERATURE.** By Prof. Richard Hochdoerfer of Wittenberg College. Pp. 255. Illustrated. 4½x7½. \$1 each postpaid. Chautauqua, N. Y.: The Chautauqua Press.

Four of the best little books that have ever been issued by the Chautauqua Institution.

In undertaking to write a brief yet sufficient history of the French Revolution, a man accepts a very difficult task, for in the period that lies between 1789 and 1795 events follow thick and furiously fast. In these six tre-

mendous years effects that have been over six hundred years in the making, are matured, and burst upon the world with volcanic force. The old order of things is violently changed. Under the impulse of a seismic convulsion man is hurled across the bottomless gap of intolerance, oppression, servitude, want, misery and despair, to land on the other side, dazed and stunned but alive. Recovering from the shock he rises, shakes himself free from the impediments of the ruins about him, and in new fields begins to plant and sow for himself and for posterity. As the vintage is the richest in that earth which covers beds of scoria and of lava, so is the fruit that is borne of the planting done in those subverted times; and we of today are gathering from their vines such grapes as grew by the brook of Eshcol.

To reduce the history of these burning days down to a few cool statements, to explain the philosophy of a tremendous psychological moment, is no light task, but Prof. Mathews has accomplished it and has done his book well. Within 282 pages he gives a clear and concise resume of the causes that led to the overthrow of the kingdom and the establishment of a commonwealth in France. Glancing back to the reign of Louis XI in the sixteenth century he returns to the eighteenth through the intervening reigns, and after beheading the most unfortunate of the Capets, closes with the victorious Return to a Constitutional Government that crowns the closing months of 1795.

The body of the book is supplemented by a good table of contents, by a well arranged chronological summary, by an exhaustive index and by an invaluable synopsis at the head of each chapter, all of them of great value to the student.

In comparing the causes of the Revolution as stated by Prof. Mathews with those given by other writers, it is interesting to note the opinion of the historian Schoell. He says:

Among the more immediate causes which gave rise to this national convulsion, must be reckoned the mistake which Louis XVI committed in supporting the American insurgents against their lawful sovereign; and sending troops to their aid, accompanied by many of the young noblesse, who, by mixing with that people, imbibed their principles of liberty and independence. By this rash step France gained a triumph over her rival, but she ruined herself:—and her imprudence will ever remain a warning to nations against incautiously rushing into unnecessary wars.

In speaking of the fate of Louis XVII Professor Mathews agrees with the majority of historians who say that it will always remain in doubt, adding that there are those who claim that the child was brought to America.

Persons who have visited Nantucket have probably received delightful corroboration of this theory. For on this quaint little island there lived until comparatively recently two elderly maiden ladies who owned what they called a key to the mystery. This was a life-sized carefully dressed wax baby which they showed as a portrait model of the poor little dauphin. Dressed in old-fashioned black silk dresses they sat on the edge of their slippery horse-hair chairs and in antiphonous monotone told how their father who was a sea captain, had induced a nurse to let a copy of the little fellow's features be made in order that he might take home a doll of unusual value to his little girls in America. The nurse, they said, had agreed, and after the Reign of Terror the doll had been a means of identifying the missing boy; he was rescued and

brought to this country where he grew to imperial manhood, and under the name of Ebenezer Williams he has been a missionary to the Indians.

*Si non e vera e ben trovato!* Old ladies' stories are not infrequently found in history. It will be noted that the "cannonade of Valmy" referred to on p. 214, is ranked by Creasy as one of the fifteen decisive battles of the world.

"Ten Frenchmen," "The States General," and in part, the volume of German Literature, round out "The French Revolution."

The first of these books contains only 265 pages, but in the lives of Guizot, Fourier, Thiers, Gambetta, Victor Hugo, Balzac, Zola, Renan, Pasteur and de Lesseps, it covers a period of one hundred and thirty momentous years, from the birth of Fourier in 1772 to the death of Zola in 1902. These intellectual giants were not mere spectators in the drama of life. They were makers and actors of history; four of them lived to be over eighty years old, one was nearly ninety. What a vista of experience was theirs!

In succession they not only saw but helped to bring about, vital changes in the history of statecraft, government, sociology, literature and science.

In their era the United States of America rose into being, the French monarchy was overthrown, two emperors in France and one in Mexico flashed across the horizon and shot off into space:—that noble old ghost of the Holy Roman Empire, was exorcised and laid, no more to disturb the peace of Europe; Poland, seized and divided by three grasping powers, ceased to be a nation; the infallibility of the Pontifex Maximus was promulgated but temporal power was taken from him and, shut up in the vatican, he had to see Victor Emmanuel "*Il Rei Galantuomo*," ascend the throne of unified Italy, while Prussia unheard of till the tenth century triumphantly humbled France and stood forth as head of an empire of the first magnitude.

Guizot was twelve years old when Washington died; Theodore Roosevelt was sixteen years old when Guizot died. Thiers, the first president of the Third Republic, was already a boy of three years when the nineteenth century dawned. De Lesseps, born in Jefferson's administration, has been dead but ten years:—and Victor Hugo who was a man of thirty when Sir Walter Scott passed away might have graduated with the first C. L. S. C. class.

Guizot rose to eminence as a historian, and as a minister did France the inestimable service of raising and extending her public school system. He and Renan, Balzac and Zola



and Pasteur are exponents of the scientific spirit of the age; he, the carpenter's apprentice, as a historian; Pasteur, the tanner's son, in natural science and the world of phenomena; Renan, the son of a sailor, in the spiritual world, the realm of the pneuma and the noumenon; Balzac and Zola in the sphere of human life.

It is rather the fashion for the general reader to condemn the works of these two last extraordinarily able authors without knowing anything about them. In the chapters devoted to them Professor Warren has made a judicial estimate of their writings which must modify the opinion of such detractors and cause them to see why the *cognoscenti* call the books great.

Fourier, son of a clock merchant, particularly interests us on this side of the Atlantic because he directly inspired the building of the phalanstery at Brook Farm, and indirectly the writing of "The Blithedale Romance." While Gambetta, the grocer's boy, appeals to us by his large patriotism. Escaping from Paris in a balloon, it was he who rallied his countrymen and led the forlorn hope against the power of Prussia.

Victor Hugo's grand old figure stands out preëminent among the ten; some good selections from his writings are given but these are necessarily very brief.

De Lesseps, the last of the decemvirate, died like Grant, the victim of man's inhumanity to man. The Suez Canal is his greatest monument. In it he finished what Pharaoh Necho had begun.

The last volume of the French triad is a delightful, simple tale, that brings out vividly the life of a French peasant from the evil days that preceded 1789 to that hopeful time that was ushered in by the National Assembly. Anybody who takes it up will not want to lay down "The States General" until he has read the last word of Michael's story.

The scene is laid in the province of Lorraine, that shuttlecock with which Teuton and Frank have played for centuries. The modest hero is a blacksmith's apprentice whose unfortunate parents groan under the *octroi* duty, and the grain tax, and the *gabelle* and the tithes, and the *corvée*, and all the other hideous loads they have to carry. The boy's godfather does a paying business as innkeeper and blacksmith. Master Jean is a good fellow and a *bonhomme*; he likes to help people and to make them happy. He is very good to Michael who grows up in his service, an alert, able, willing young man. A certain little dark peddler, Chauvel, a Calvinist, is a welcome

guest at the inn and he and mine host discuss the tremendous causes of the Revolution (prophetically speaking) and the condition of the country in the same every-day fashion that we discuss the current events of 1904.

Eventually the two go to Versailles and Chauvel writes home a long and lively account of the way they were received by the king, how the three orders were dressed, of the manner in which he and the rest of the Third Estate were treated; how they had been shut out of the hall of the States General on the pretext that it needed to be put in order and so they had gone over to the Tennis Court and were meeting there.

Chauvel has a daughter Marguerite who is connected with a pretty love story—but no discreet book reviewer ever tells lovers' secrets, he leaves it to the curious reader to find them out.

This bit of fiction is an admirable element to work into the Chautauqua course, and it is to be hoped that those who draw up the programme will henceforth put in something equally good every year. Human nature craves recreation and there is nothing like a really good novel for resting the brain; moreover it is a powerful menstrum in which to dissolve hard facts, and to make them go down easily.

The work of the translator of "The States General" is very unequal; the greater part is well done, but occasionally it is not free enough. In his efforts to stick closely to the idiom of the original he often uses stilted and ungrammatical terms, and he has fallen into the error of giving American provincialisms as the equivalent of the French vernacular.

In his "Introductory Studies in German Literature," Professor Hochdoerfer gets a great deal into a very small space. Within 255 pages he discusses the great epics, "The Nibelungen Lied," "Gudrun," and "Parzival," he treats of Martin Luther and his influences on the German nation, language and thought; and after brief biographies of Lessing, Goethe, Schiller, Heine and Scheffel with excellent analyses of "Minna von Barnhelm," "Nathan der Weise," "Hermann und Dorothea," "Faust," "The Song of the Bell," Heine's "Book of Songs" and "Der Trompeter von Säckingen,"—he concludes with sketches of Wagner and the later dramatists.

It is an extremely useful book; one that gives a good working knowledge of Germany's best literature and that awakens a wish to read the chief masterpieces in their entirety. In the selections made and in the lives of the authors, emphasis is laid on the *Sturm und Drang*, the Storm and Stress, influence of the

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Revolutionary Period, so that the book bears an opposite relation to the three others of the set.

Lessing, the earliest of the poets mentioned, died in the same year that Napoleon and Wellington were born; Thiers and Heine first saw the light within eight years of each other. The spirit of the times agitated many nations, and its manifestations in France produced lasting effects in Germany.

In conclusion it must be said that the mechanical work in the four books is excellent; the binding is suitable; paper, type and spacing are attractive and the proofreading has been careful. Two or three errors have crept in and these are now pointed out in order to help the student who might otherwise be misled.

"German Literature," p. 77, line 11, a word is omitted between "In the" and "near Gath."

"Ten Frenchmen, p. 44, line 11, Utopia should begin with a capital; p. 85, line 15, septuagenarian is misspelled.

"States General," p. 13, last line, for "them" read "they." MARY E. MERINGTON.

KWADAN. By Lafcadio Hearn. 5x7½. \$1.50. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

By right of acknowledged preëminence in interpreting the spirit of Japan whatever Lafcadio Hearn writes is not to be missed by him who would know the genius of the race. Mr. Hearn's new book of "Stories and Studies of Strange Things" is characterized by charm of style, startling imagery indefinable but permeative atmosphere," and a haunting quality which represents phases of Japanese life as mysterious as they are absorbing to the western mind. The volume has drawings by a Japanese artist and Japanese characters are used as typographical attractions.

F. C. B.

GETTING ACQUAINTED WITH THE TREES. By J. Horace McFarland. 6x8¾. \$1.75 net. New York: The Macmillan Co.

We are fairly well accustomed to books with illustrations by the author of the text; but to find an author and photographer who is also his own printer, all these functions being notably performed, is of itself a striking phenomenon in book production. In this three-fold expression from a professed tree-lover, one recognizes that effective nature photography so effectively produced in *Country Life in America* by the same hand. Chapters of the book attracted wide attention in the pages of *The Outlook*. The volume has a typographical appeal of distinct character; photographs in tint, full pages and assorted forms. portray beauty so that one must observe it hereafter

with keener enjoyment. There are nearly one hundred illustrations. The text is a record of personal experience rather than scientific observation, but the test of reading aloud to another who "knows the trees" assured the reviewer of its accuracy as well as its suggestive qualities.

F. C. B.

IMPERTINENT POEMS. By Edmund Vance Cooke. 4¾x7¼. 75 cents. Boston: Forbes & Company.

The author suggests that the chief impertinence is in calling these verses poems, but in a striking style of versification which readers of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* will familiarly recognize, Mr. Cooke hits a good many people where they live. Better things than these we think Mr. Cooke has done, but "How Did You Die?" for example, is one of the kind you would clip or copy to keep if this book did not preserve it in better form.

F. C. B.

JAPANESE PHYSICAL TRAINING. By H. Irving Hancock. Illustrated 7¾. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

*Jiu-Jitsu*, the system of exercise, diet and general mode of living by which it is claimed that the Mikado's people have been made "the healthiest, strongest and happiest men and women in the world," is the novel and interesting subject timed for the present market. The author has devoted much of his time during seven years to thorough study of its principles. He presents the subject historically, and then deals with details in such fashion that the system recommends itself to practical application by Americans. Numerous full-page illustrations show tricks and feats as well as physical exercises for development.

F. C. B.

THE NEW YORK COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM. By Dr. Andrew Sloan Draper. Illustrated with portraits. 50 cents. 4¾x6¾. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Barden.

Dr. Draper claims that New York State's common school work occupies the leading position among the states of the American Union. His suggestion that fervent poets, orators and historians among New England's sons had given her undue precedence in fame when the facts show that prime credit belongs to New York, is said to have aroused some controversy when first made. Dr. Draper sustains his contention by a long list of New York "firsts"—the establishment of a public school, school tax on all property for educating all children, establishing state supervision of elementary schools, providing for education of teachers, establishing the first female academy and the schools, providing for education of teachers, establishing the first female academy and the first woman's college, etc., spending more



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money, exercising closer supervision, consolidating and systematizing her work to a greater extent than any other state east or west. Dr. Draper has contributed a substantial piece of historical research to available records of American education, suggestive to educators throughout the United States. Originally given in a public address the material has been revised and issued in book form illustrated by nineteen portraits. F. C. B.

**A BOOK OF CARTOONS.** Drawn by Harry J. Westerman. 12x9. Published by Edward T. Miller, Columbus, O. Printed by Fred J. Heer, Columbus, Ohio.

Readers of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* will recall many effective cartoons by Westerman reproduced in "Highways and Byways." This collection of his characteristic productions which have appeared in the *Ohio State Journal* is published in attractive book form. An introduction by Samuel G. McClure of the *State Journal* truly points out that much of Westerman's success has been due to pleasant humor, happy fancy and clever ridicule that rarely leave the realm of amiability. F. C. B.

**PATIENCE; OR BUNTHORNE'S BRIDE.** BY W. S. Gilbert. 5x7½. Price \$1.00. New York City: Doubleday, Page & Co.

A revised edition of the text of the never-failing popular Gilbert comic opera of "Patience; or Bunthorne's Bride", is here available in attractive and convenient form. The author in a prefatory note describes the genesis of the satirical production, and the determination of a satisfactory basis for its long-lived success. F. C. B.

**LETTERS TO A YOUNG MAN ABOUT TOWN.** By W. M. Thackeray. 3¼x5½. Prices 40c, 75c, \$1.25, \$1.50, boxed. Boston: H. M. Caldwell Co.

A late addition to the Remarque edition of literary masterpieces. These essays appeared originally in *Punch*. This edition is exceedingly attractive for gift purposes, printed on hand made deckle-edge paper, with original etching frontispiece by Marcel, bound in embossed cloth stamped in gold, with gilt tops and ribbon marker. F. C. B.

**THE SIMPLE HOME.** By Charles Keeler. 5x6¾. 75 cents. San Francisco: Paul Elder & Company.

A book calculated to show how even the simplest home surroundings can be made artistic and full of meaning has a purpose that appeals widely. We welcome the assurance that there is a movement toward simpler, truer, and more vital art expression in California, and Mr. Charles Keeler has written a number of helpful essays from the standpoint of a layman in architecture to emphasize the gospel of the simple life, to increase faith in simple

beauty, and to spread the conviction that we must live art before we can create it. Here are a great many practical suggestions, about materials, the building and furnishing of the home, the garden, real mission architecture, etc.; and numerous photographic reproductions graphically impress lessons. The work is to be heartily commended for its purpose and performance. F. C. B.

**A COUNTRY WITHOUT STRIKES.** By Henry Demarest Lloyd. 4¾x7½. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

A paper covered edition of the late Henry Demarest Lloyd's "A Country Without Strikes" which ought to insure wider circulation among people of this timely and painstaking account of the workings of the compulsory arbitration court of New Zealand. The volume has an introduction by William Pember Reeves, ex-minister of labor in New Zealand and author of the compulsory arbitration law.

**COMPOSITION AND RHETORIC.** By Maude L. Radford. pp. 400, \$1.00. New York: Hinds & Noble.

A suggestive book in content and logical in arrangement. Prepared for the intermediate and advanced student it wisely resorts to principle rather than rule with the result that it promises not to restrict but to stimulate the student. In make-up it is at once compact and compendious. P. H. B.

**PARSIFAL.** By H. R. Haweis. Illustrated. 4½x6¼. 40c net.

**ESARHADDON.** By Leo Tolstoy. Illustrated. 4½x6¼. 40c net.

**THE TROUBLE WOMAN.** By Clara Morris. 4½x6¼. 40c net. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company.

The story and analysis of Wagner's great opera, "Parsifal," given by H. R. Haweis will be appreciated by Chautauqua students of "German Master Musicians" in the current year's course of magazine readings. The qualifications of the author of "My Musical Memories" are universally known to music-lovers. When first printed this text made a distinct impression. The reprint in the dainty booklet form of "The Hour-Glass Series" will prove most acceptable. A portrait of the composer and scenes from the opera are included.

In the same series appear "The Trouble Woman," by Clara Morris, a tragic tale of experience yet bearing the message of cheer, and "Esarhaddon," the authorized American edition of three stories by Leo Tolstoy, published for the benefit of the Kishineff sufferers. F. C. B.





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December  
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# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

A Monthly Magazine of Things Worth While

*Official Publication of Chautauqua Institution*

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MADONNA DI TEMPI, MUNICH  
By Raphael.

DEC 5 1904  
CAMBRIDGE, MASS.  
THE CHAUTAUQUAN

VOL. XL.

DECEMBER, 1904.

No. 4.



**L**AST month we referred to the resolutions adopted by the International peace conference and the announcement by President Roosevelt that, pursuant to the earnest recommendations of that body, he would issue invitations to the powers to meet again at The Hague and complete or at all events continue, the peace work of the first congress, held at that capital in 1899 at the instance of the Tzar. In France and Russia this piece of news was received coldly, if not with actual suspicion and resentment. It was pointed out that Russia and Japan would not send delegates to a peace congress held at any time before the termination of the present war, and that a congress without their representatives would be a hollow, insincere, absurd farce. This is the view now taken by our own government, it is understood, and therefore the invitation issued recently to the powers leaves the date and place of the conference to be fixed by them.

In this connection, in view of the terrible and sanguinary character of the Russo-Japanese conflict, it has been urged that the belligerents themselves be appealed to in the name of humanity and civilization, and of the welfare of their own respective people, to suspend the slaughter and enter into negotiations for terms of peace. Leading men have declared, moreover, that it is the religious and moral duty of the great Christian nations to intervene and somehow end the conflict regardless of the false pride and sensibilities of the combatants. The most

important peace utterance of last month was that of the International Peace Congress held at Boston, which adopted the following strongly and definitely worded resolutions:

Resolved, That the congress address to the emperors of Russia and Japan an earnest appeal, entreating them either by direct negotiations or by having recourse to the friendly offices of some neutral power or powers, to put an end to the awful slaughter of their subjects now going on, and urging the plea that since terms of peace must sooner or later be discussed and settled it is far better that this shall be done promptly so as to avert the further sacrifice of precious lives and valuable property.

That the congress forward an address to each of the signatory powers of The Hague convention other than Russia and Japan, reminding them of the article 27 of the convention and urging them in accordance therewith to press upon the governments of Russia and Japan the importance of putting an end without further delay to a war which afflicts humanity, hinders legitimate commerce and impedes the progress of the world in the pathway of civilization and peace.

These appeals were drafted and sent; they were followed by the adoption of an outline of a new international convention to serve as a substitute for the inefficient and unsatisfactory Hague convention, and finally the plan of convoking another conference was approved, with the reservation that the first task of such conference should be "to elaborate and apply a definite plan of simultaneous arrest and subsequent reduction of armaments."

Perhaps no immediate effects are to be expected from these efforts in behalf of

peace, but there is reason for thinking that the horrors of war as just exemplified anew in Manchuria are causing a moral reaction against the gospel of militarism



W. W. ROCKHILL  
New Minister to  
China.

and brute force and turning men's thoughts to arbitration and peace. It is interesting to note that Mr. Andrew Carnegie has been seriously proposing the organization of a league of great powers to do away with war and enforce arbitration by threats of "war for the sake of peace," and asking the United States to assume the initiative in

this matter. War to abolish war is rather paradoxical, but Mr. Carnegie's idea is that a few wars in the cause of permanent peace and disarmament would be infinitely preferable to wars for territory, trade or glory and to the ruinous expense and taxation which perpetual menace of war involves. The plan, however, is manifestly Utopian. The organization of an anti-war league by the powers is not even a remote possibility.



### Milder Regime in Russia

Since the appointment of Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky, Governor of the Vilna district, to succeed the late M. Plehve as minister of the interior, liberal Russians and foreign observers have been hoping for positive evidence of a more or less decided change of internal policy in Russia. The new minister is undoubtedly a man of moderate views and his past career indicates that he has more faith in conciliation and liberalism than in repression and cruelty. His influence, as far as it goes, will be thrown on the side of re-

form and progress. But while his words have been reassuring and pleasant, there has been no clear indication that corresponding acts are to follow.

In Finland, the process of Russification has been continued with vigor. The new governor-general, Prince Obolensky, has prohibited the entry of 67 Swedish newspapers into the province, and this number includes the best and most influential organs of Swedish opinion; and this was shortly after Mirsky had received a deputation of editors and assured them that he respected the press and sympathized with its efforts to secure greater recognition as an agency of national progress and culture.

There has been some relaxation of the laws in regard to the residence rights of the Jews. Certain classes of rich, titled and highly educated Jews will be permitted to live in any part of the empire, and the same privilege has been extended to Jewish soldiers who have distinguished themselves in battle. Not many will benefit by these slight concessions, though they possibly indicate a weakening of racial prejudice and bigotry. In promulgating the modified law as to the Jews, the imperial rescript announces a careful revision of the whole body of legislation in



THE DOVE COTE

—From *Minneapolis Journal*.

regard to the Jews, and this is deemed even more significant than the change already made.

There is much interest in Mirsky's policy toward the provincial and district assemblies (zemstvos). These represent the principle of home rule, autonomy in local economic, educational and industrial affairs. They have striven for greater freedom of action and coöperation, but Plehve and his predecessor regarded them with suspicion and systematically restricted their sphere. Mirsky is supposed to be in favor of more self-government and less dependence on the central bureaucracy, but his colleagues are understood to be opposed to him in this particular. The war is bringing home to all intelligent Russians the imperative need of wide and real reforms, and the press has printed some bold declarations to this effect. The government's intentions remain a secret.



## The Baltic Fleet and the War

Russia's prestige as a great military and naval power has received another severe blow. The Baltic fleet, which was to attack the Japanese squadron blockading Port Arthur, relieve that stronghold, change the complexion of things in Manchuria and enable Kuropatkin to defeat the united Japanese armies under Oyama, had hardly sailed from Reval, near the mouth of the Gulf of Finland, when it endangered the peace of Europe and covered itself with confusion and odium by astounding operations in the North Sea. The firing into the British fishing fleet from Hull brought England and Russia to the brink of war. Several extraordinary features of that incident remain unexplained at this writing, but fortunately the good sense and moderation of the two governments prevented the grave complication from precipitating a conflict into which other nations might have been drawn and which would have caused the sanguinary campaign in Manchuria to sink into comparative insignifi-

cance. It is a painful commentary on the alleged peace sentiment of the world that the press and military leaders of Great Britain were ready to support demands that Russia would have felt constrained to refuse and clamored for an ultimatum and vengeance.

Vice Admiral Rojestvensky's explanation in the North Sea affair seemed, indeed, improbable. He declared, in brief dispatches of an aggressive and even flippant character, that he had been attacked by torpedo boats and had open-

ed fire in self-defense. One boat, he thought he had sent to the bottom, while the other had escaped. Japan denied that she had any torpedo boats in the North Sea, and England had no doubt that the admiral and his subordinates had mistaken inoffensive fishing smacks for war vessels. She felt, however, that the alleged explanation could not be dismissed as absurd without an impartial inquiry. At first disposed to insist on the punishment of the officers concerned (in addition to an apology, a pecuniary indemnity and guarantees of future security), she subsequently consented to an investigation of the whole incident by a mixed commission under the rules of The Hague arbitration tribunal, with the view to a determination of the degrees of guilt, if any, of the admiral and other officers. At this writing it is generally believed that the verdict will be unqualifiedly adverse to Russia.

At all events, the Baltic fleet will not reach the Far Eastern waters for months. Port Arthur, whose heroic defense has been admired, may not be able to continue its resistance much longer, and, in-



PRINCE SVIATOPOLK  
MIRSKY  
New Minister of  
the Interior of  
Russia.

deed, reports of its imminent reduction are once more in active circulation. However, the fall of that fortress would not deprive the Baltic fleet of all occupation

or reason for being in that quarter.

Turning to the land operations, the great question at this juncture is whether Kuropatkin will again assume the offensive. His attempted advance has been variously explained—by pressure from St. Petersburg due to popular discontent and danger of revolt; by the commander's fear of flanking operations



ALEXEI NIKOLAEIVICH KUROPATKIN  
Commander-in-chief  
of Russian forces  
in the Far East.

of the enemy and so on—but whatever the reason for his sudden change of tactics, the advance was decisively checked by the Japanese after a terrible struggle which surpassed that of Liao-Yang. A pause necessarily ensued, but no light has yet been thrown upon the question as to the Russian commander's present strength and position. Has he been sufficiently reënforced to carry an aggressive campaign and try to force the Japanese back? If not, he may have to evacuate Mukden and continue his retreat to Harbin. There is, however, a third possibility that neither army is at present strong enough to obtain an important advantage over the other, and that the first year of the war will end with a stalemate.

Military experts express the opinion that Japan has not fully improved her opportunities—that she has been too cautious and slow, and that in view of Russia's unpreparedness at every point a bolder course would have resulted in far more substantial achievements for Japan. On the other hand, Russia is praised for

what she has accomplished, in the way of hampering and obstructing and inflicting heavy loss upon the enemy, with the totally inadequate means at her command in Manchuria.



## The Circum-Baikal Railway

Whatever the outcome of the Russo-Japanese war may be, the Siberian and Manchurian railway will remain as a great civilizing agent. The Manchurian section of the line may be "neutralized"—or it may fall under Japanese control—but the establishment of unbroken rail communication between St. Petersburg and Vladivostok is a triumph for industry and material progress.

With the formal opening of the Circum-Baikal branch of that section which passes round the southern extremity of Lake Baikal, such communication has been established. The whole vast enterprise has been brought to a successful issue. The Circum-Baikal section is 170 miles in length, and it has cost over \$26,000,000. The line goes through a succession of mountain chains and over three rivers. It passes through 19 tunnels and over 200



How these inexperienced assistants do embarrass a lecturer by putting on the wrong slide.

—From *Chicago Record-Herald*.



bridges and viaducts. The difficulties overcome by the engineers had originally been considered almost insurmountable.

The outbreak of the war and the transportation problems entailed by it forced Russia to make the most determined efforts to push the circuit railway to completion. This winter it will not be necessary to lay rails on the ice or to use an ice-breaker capable of carrying a whole train. The Siberian railway has been one of the marvels of the war, and the opening of the new section will enable Russia to do even better than she has done in transporting troops and supplies to the Far East.



### Tendency to Municipal Ownership

We have from time to time directed attention to the great "street railway struggle" in Chicago, the second city in the United States. Twice have the electors of that municipality voted for municipal acquisition and operation of the intramural surface railway, and by decisive majorities. Owing to litigation, a receivership, doubtful claims of the companies under an old state grant adverse to the city, and other complications, there has been practically no progress toward a settlement. A "tentative" ordinance has been prepared giving one of the companies a franchise for a term of thirteen years and providing for municipal purchase of its property at the end of that period. The measure is regarded as a fair and reasonable one not only by the authorities but also by the conservative elements of the community. The advocates of municipal ownership, however, are opposed to any renewal of the street-railway franchises and determined to defeat the proposed ordinance. They would have the city proceed with plans for municipal acquisition and operation, allowing the companies to remain in the field for a time under a mere revocable license. Favorable action might have been taken on

the ordinance by the city council had not a petition bearing 65,000 signatures been presented to the mayor demanding a referendum upon it, and accordingly the proposed ordinance is to be submitted to the people next spring for acceptance or rejection. The probability is that it will be rejected.

It is a significant fact that even conservative men (and influential newspapers as well), far from opposing municipal ownership in principle, base their objection to that alternative on purely practical

and temporary grounds and suggest the policy of "small beginnings" and "easy stages" toward the goal of municipal ownership. As the companies admit that certain streets are not covered by their state franchises, and the municipal grants having expired or nearing expiration, the city might cautiously inaugurate the public ownership policy by constructing or acquiring street railways in these particular streets. This is a very different attitude from that which the conservative citizens used to take less than a decade ago. The general feeling is that public ownership cannot long be delayed in Chicago, the greed, inefficiency and short-sightedness of the street railway corporations now in possession there having made private ownership odious.

Doubtless the experience of European cities has not been without effect and influence. In Liverpool, for example, according to a report made by Sir C. Petrie, chairman of the municipal street railway service, public ownership has proven a complete success. In seven years the number of passengers carried has increased



THE LATE SIR WILLIAM VERNON-HARCOURT.  
British Statesman.



hand that produces and the mouth that consumes, and we find that the hand does not slap the mouth, nor the mouth bite the hand. If the users are receiving poor



ROBERT J. WYNNE  
New Postmaster  
General of the  
United States.

service, they know where to file their complaint. If they want improved general conditions, they know they have to go down in their own pockets for it. The plan gives us perfect satisfaction and lower telephone rates and better service than is generally secured from private corporations.

"We have here also a lighting plant which is organized on the same lines as the telephone, except that the shares of stock are \$10 each, and the rental unit upon which stock can be sold or held is an annual rental of \$2.50 paid, or agreed to be paid. This is generally nearly equivalent to our annual rental upon one incandescent lamp of sixteen candle power. We get cheaper and better light service than is given by any private corporation that I know of, and it is a form of organization that can be used in cities where the municipal indebtedness prevents them from putting in a municipal plant."



## The Industrial Age Limit

"What shall we do with aged clergymen?" was a live topic of discussion at one time. One minister declared with grim humor that the most humane solution would be to shoot them. This answer is recalled by the recent orders of railway and other corporations against the employment or re-employment after involuntary idleness of men over 35 years of age. In some instances, it appears, workmen have been discharged on this ground of having passed "the dead line."

While the reports in regard to the action of employers in enforcing an arbitrary age limit may contain some exag-

geration, the tendencies in the industrial world are undoubtedly in that direction, and a grave problem is presented by the situation. It is stated that hundreds of expert steel men have lost employment in the Carnegie Steel Company on account of the age limit. There is much dissatisfaction with the rule in organized labor circles, and the central union in Chicago has adopted emphatic resolutions protesting against the "limit," attributing it to an unavowed desire to reduce wages and discourage organization, and demanding legislation "withdrawing from employers the right to discharge" for this reason.

As has been pointed out, however, legislatures have no power under American constitutional principles to prohibit a man from discharging an employee for any reason or alleged reason whatever, or even without assigning any reason at all, any more than they have the power to prevent men from striking or getting work (in the absence of some unusual contract calling for specific performance) with or without reason. Were any legislature to pass such a restrictive act, the courts would annul it as an unwarranted interference with free contract and the rights of property.

Yet the age limit is productive of much dislocation, hardship and injustice, and some remedy is likely to be needful. None has yet been suggested except more effective organization of labor along practical and conservative lines.



## Railway Accidents and the Law

No subject demands a more thorough investigation at the hands of Congress than the persistent increase of fatal accidents on our railways. Dealing with the collisions and wrecks of the last fiscal year, the Interstate Commerce Commission says that the list is "an alarming exhibit."

Compared with the preceding twelvemonth, the deaths of passengers and employees show an increase of 6 per cent, and

the non-fatal accidents an increase of 11 per cent. The number of those killed or injured at grade crossings has not been ascertained and there are other omissions to be supplied; but already the record shows casualties for the year to more than 55,000 passengers and employees. A battle in which as many soldiers and officers are lost shocks the whole civilized world.

When the figures are compared with those of the early nineties the "exhibit" becomes even more "alarming." The railway mileage of the country since 1894, for instance, has increased about 20 per cent, and the number of passengers carried about 30 per cent; while the number of casualties has increased nearly 80 per cent. What are the causes of this slaughter? In every other direction the United States is making wonderful progress. In production, distribution, facilities of communication and transportation, the country is steadily advancing. Why are we unequal to the task of preventing railway disasters and saving human life?

The commerce commission believes that the equipment of the roads with block signals (a mere question of expense) would stop the slaughter. It says that

"the roads not block-signaled continue to fill the records with costly and fatal collisions," while admitting that collisions occur even on lines fitted with such safety devices. The use, especially for "excursion" purposes of cheap, flimsy, antiquated cars is undoubtedly a cause of many casualties. Overwork is another important factor. In some cases collisions occurred through blunders of the exhausted and weary train crews who had been on duty without sleep or rest, for twenty or twenty-two hours.

How many engineers, firemen and conductors are overworked in this way? The question is variously answered, but a searching inquiry would doubtless establish the truth. The neglect of the railway-accident problem by our legislative bodies is almost incomprehensible. There are, however, signs of an awakening. Stricter regulation and supervision of railway service is now a recognized necessity.



FRANK W. HIGGINS  
Governor-elect of  
New York.



THE STEADY WORKER

The Angel Death—"O yes, war; you do pretty well for a spasmodic fellow, but look what my lieutenant yonder does, with no apparent effort.

—From *Minneapolis Journal*.

## Another Abuse in Transportation

Some years ago the greatest evil in the American railroad and transportation industry was the practice of discrimination against sections, cities and classes or individuals. This is supposed to have been abandoned, like the system of secret rebates. In May, 1903, a sweeping injunction was issued against several railroad companies restraining them from paying rebates and otherwise violating the commerce and anti-trust laws, but as the injunction was not opposed, no evidence of violation of those laws came to light.

A recent investigation by the Interstate

Commerce Commission at the instance of a national body of commission merchants has shown that, by means of the so-called private car system, the meat packers and the railroads have evaded and violated all the legislation, as well as the injunction, designed to restrain favoritism, extortion and abuse of monopoly.

The private car industry is about twenty-five years old. It came into existence at a time when the railways were too poor to provide refrigerator cars for handling perishable produce. The railroads are now quite able and willing to take care of this traffic, but the private car companies are so powerful that even competition with them is out of the question. They control the situation in their field, which is constantly being extended.

There are now 131,000 private cars in use in the country, of which 25,000 are refrigerator cars. The amount invested in this industry is \$100,000,000, and so high are the charges levied by their owners that 25 per cent in dividends is earned on the investment. To object to oppressive rates is to run the risk of a boycott and to lose business. Of course the railroads recoup themselves at the expense of the shippers; in some instances the charges to shippers have been increased, in two years, 200 and even 400 per cent. Big shippers get rebates; small ones are at the mercy of the companies and the roads in league with them.

The car companies are not "common carriers," though they perform the functions of common carriers. The laws evolved for the protection of the public do not reach them, it appears; but Congress will be asked to take some action in the premises. These lines can be made common carriers or forced to sell their cars to the railroads, the latter being willing to acquire them at a fair price. At the close of the inquiry Commissioner Prouty did not hesitate to say:

The conditions disclosed by this hearing show such shameful and burdensome impositions upon certain classes of large firms that I do not see how the pub-

licity given them can fail to incite Congress to take action in the way of remedial legislation.

A great deal is said about law and order with reference to labor unions and strikes. This is right and proper; but a gospel of law and order is evidently needed in other circles quite as much.



## The Presidential Election and After

In one sense, the expected happened on election day, for the success of President Roosevelt had been foreseen and predicted not only by Republicans, but by independent and Democratic observers as well. But there were surprises in the returns nevertheless. Mr. Roosevelt's majorities or pluralities in the states that had been classed as "doubtful" astonished even the Republican managers.

The most hopeful and confident of these had not ventured to "claim" more than 311 electoral votes for the Roosevelt-Fairbanks ticket, whereas at this writing, the returns from one or two states being incomplete and uncertain, at least 325 electoral votes are assured to that ticket. Every northern state, every so-called doubtful state, has gone Republican by an extraordinary if not unprecedented plurality. No such victory has been scored by the dominant party in a generation. For a parallel one must go to the disastrous campaign of Horace Greely against General Grant. The defeat of Alton B. Parker was more "crushing," politically speaking, than that of Mr. Bryan in 1900.

What is the meaning of this "landslide"? The first and obvious comment upon the result is that President Roosevelt was "stronger than his party," and that his triumphant election is due to his remarkable personal popularity. It is evident that Democrats and Populists voted for him in large numbers; in no other way can the result in Democratic strongholds like New York and Chicago be explained. It is also certain that few Republicans bolted their party on any of the issues

which the Democrats made prominent. Mr. Roosevelt's unconventional ways and his record and policies seem to have appealed with special force to the younger men of the country. To the great majority of the people he represented virility, independence, dash and enterprise, while Judge Parker was regarded as a "negative" and "colorless" candidate.

To what extent the direction of the campaign in its final stage contributed to the result, cannot be determined from the figures, though there is a general impression that the Democratic charges against Manager Cortelyou and the President in connection with campaign funds (charges, which many construed as involving reflections on the President's personal integrity) cost them many votes.

A factor of importance undoubtedly was the absence of fresh or definite or popular issues. The Republicans promised no changes and denied the need of any. The country, they urged, was prosperous at home and respected abroad, and all that wisdom required was a continuation of the policies that had worked so well. The Democrats attacked the tariff and trust and "colonial" policies of the administration without, however, proposing immediate or decided departures. The lack of plain and palpable issues usually favors the party in power.

And now that the Republican party has so enthusiastic an endorsement and the Democratic party, in spite of the reorganization effected by the conservative elements and the return to conservatism, has been so badly beaten again, what of

the future? So far as the Republicans are concerned, they control Congress as well as the Executive Department, their majority in the House just elected being twice as large as that they command in the present House, and they can legislate without fear of serious obstruction or effective opposition. Will they attempt any constructive legislation? Will they deal with such questions as reciprocity, railroad abuses, finance, capital and labor disputes, etc.? It is said that Mr. Roosevelt is still a strong believer in tariff revision and that he intends to place himself at the head of the progressive tariff-reform element.

This would produce a lively struggle within the party.

As to the Democrats, it is of course absurd to talk as some do, about the destruction and disappearance of the great party. That another reorganization will follow is quite likely. Doubtless Mr. Bryan and the radicals will try to regain the supremacy they lost last summer and

give the party a positive, advanced platform. A new alignment is predicted by those who believe that the maturing problems of the country, ignored in the late campaign, will divide both great parties. But whatever the future may bring, at present conservatism rather than radicalism is in the ascendant. The Populist vote throughout the country is surprisingly small, and the Socialists alone have made substantial gains, without, however, electing a single member of Congress.

It is interesting to note, in view of the recent gossip, that President Roosevelt has taken occasion to announce that he



THEODORE ROOSEVELT  
Elected president of the United States.



CHARLES W. FAIRBANKS  
Elected Vice-president of the United States.

regards the term for which he was elected as his second term and that, in obedience to the spirit of the anti-third-term tradition he will retire in 1909. Under no



SIR WILFRED  
LAURIER  
'Liberal' Premier  
of Canada.

circumstances, he has declared, will he consent to be a candidate for the presidency again. This is in accord with public sentiment, for there is a movement among business men for a constitutional amendment extending the presidential term to six years and rendering an incumbent ineligible for reelection. It cannot be doubted that a reform of

this kind would have a most wholesome effect on our national politics and legislation.



## The Liberal Victory in Canada

Elections to the lower house of the Dominion Parliament were held on November 3, and with results almost as surprising in their way as were those of the presidential election in this country. The Laurier government was given another lease of power, and its victory was far more sweeping than it had hoped for. It had expected to lose from ten to fifteen seats, and a majority of forty would have been considered fairly satisfactory. Instead, it gained about twenty-five seats, and will have a larger majority than any Dominion ministry has ever secured. The conservative opposition, led by Mr. Borden of Nova Scotia, an able campaigner, sustained a severe defeat "all along the line."

There were several issues in the Canadian election, but the principal ones

were: Tariff revision, the new Transcontinental railway, and the relation between the colony and England. The Conservatives advanced more adequate protection for domestic products, closer bonds with the mother country and government construction of the projected railway. The Liberals, while recognizing the need of some tariff changes, opposed a general increase of duties. The railway contract with the Canadian Pacific they defended warmly against the charges of excessive liberality to that company at the expense of the people, and with regard to imperialism, they professed entire readiness to entertain specific proposals for closer union with the mother country and pointed to the '33 1-3 preference they had of their own accord granted to British exporters to Canadian markets. Above all, however, they laid stress on the prosperity the country has enjoyed for the past several years, under Liberal administration, and on the danger of experimental and gratuitous changes.

Among Canadian manufacturers the drift toward the Conservative party has been unmistakable, but the masses of the people were manifestly disinclined to disturb the *status quo*, hence the large majorities for the ministerial candidates and their supporters. The Laurier program will now be carried out, but Sir Wilfrid himself may retire from public life on account of failing health. His successor as premier, should he resign, will be the present finance minister, Mr. Fielding.

Newfoundland, too, has had an election, and the Bond ministry has been indorsed by the voters. The main issue in that island was confederation with Canada, which the dominant party opposed and the rather heterogeneous anti-Bond alliance advocated. Newfoundland has been as prosperous as her big neighbor and prefers a reciprocity treaty with the United States to absorption by the Dominion. Such a treaty is now pending in our Senate.



## Era of Social Speculation and Experiment

By Frederic Austin Ogg

University of Indiana. Author of "Saxon and Slav."

**N**O one who studies thoughtfully the period of the Old Régime in Europe can fail to observe that the social and industrial system then prevailing involved an exceedingly close interrelation of men. It would perhaps be an error to say that the network of society was tighter drawn than it is today, but it is at least true that the web of business, of labor, and of culture in which we are all bound up together differs very much in nature from that which enveloped the Europeans of the Middle Ages, of the Reformation era, or even of the age of Louis XIV. We are related to our fellow men in new ways, and many of the old forms of relationship have disappeared. Feudalism, for example, imposed a whole series of personal relations—that of lord to vassal, of vassal to lord, of vassal to sub-vassal, of lord to over-lord, of over-lord to king—which have been brought to an end in practically all parts of the civilized world. Similarly the days of the royal trading companies, of the league of Hansa towns, of international rivalry for colonial possessions in America and Africa, and of traffic in slaves upon the high seas, witnessed a

great group of relationships in the world of trade which have few counterparts at the present time. By a little effort the reader can call to mind a score of ways in which men were brought into touch with one another in seventeenth and eighteenth century Europe that do not now exist. And it is even easier to make a formidable list of varieties of human relationships which are peculiar, or nearly so, to the society of the last hundred years.

In a very large degree the changes of this sort in the society and industry of continental Europe were directly or indirectly the work of the French Revolution. Many of them have been considered in more or less detail in earlier articles in this series and it is not necessary even to enumerate them here. The one great fact which stands out clearly above them all is that during the decade beginning with 1789 the social structure of France, and of other countries as well, so far as they were affected, was fairly torn asunder, and when the movement was past a large number of the ties which had hitherto bound men in one sort of relationship or another were forever sev-

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This is the fourth of a series of nine articles on "Social Progress in Europe." The complete list in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Some Features of the Old Régime (September).  
The Afterglow of the Revolution (October).  
Reaction and the Republican Revival (November).

Era of Social Experiment (December).

England and the Industrial Revolution (January).

England During the Victorian Era (February).  
Recent Social Movements in the Romance Countries (March).

Germany and the Progress of Socialism (April).

Social and Industrial Russia (May).

ered. For the most part these ties were such as had long been onerous to the common people and it was primarily because of this fact that they were broken. For instance the peasant was no longer under obligations to render feudal dues to his neighboring lord, or to carry his grain to a particular mill, or to abandon his needy crop to labor upon the land of

and giving service. But as between man and man there was to be a new and larger freedom. The era just opening was to be one of supreme individualism. True enough, the rallying cry was for "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity," but the first two of these terms were to be so construed that the last could impose no obligations or restrictions not voluntarily assumed.

It was perhaps but natural that the revolutionists should have expected greater benefits from the new social order than were actually realized. Like reformers in all ages they cherished numerous ideals which were beyond their reach and their enthusiasm not infrequently outran their means. If this was true when the social upheaval was actively in progress it was even more true in the period of twenty or thirty years following the restoration. For though, as we have already said, the larger and better social results of the Revolution were not lost, even by the return of Bourbon kings to the throne of France, the believer in personal liberty, economic independence, and especially popular control of the government certainly had abundant reason for dissatisfaction with the course of affairs in those unsettled times.

Aside from the reactionary policies of sovereigns like Charles X and ministers like Metternich, which threatened to restore old abuses and impose ancient burdens upon the peasantry, there were other causes for serious apprehensions. It is true that, as a whole, the common people in all the countries of western Europe in the early part of the nineteenth century were more contented and prosperous than their ancestors had ever been. Freed from the feudal obligations and the industrial restrictions of the ante-revolutionary times they were fast turning to trade and manufacturing and were becoming well-to-do, and in many cases wealthy. As small but completely independent rural proprietors likewise they were enjoying a prosperity hitherto



FRANCIS JOSEPH OF AUSTRIA

Became Emperor in the midst of the Revolution of 1848 on the abdication of his uncle, Ferdinand I. Still reigning.

his tyrannical suzerain. He was emancipated from all claims that his former superiors ever had upon his income and services.

This process of social, and particularly of industrial, disintegration was characteristic of the whole revolutionary movement. In their reaction against a system under which only a small minority of men were entirely free from obnoxious bonds to their fellows, the people who did the work of revolution and reconstruction swung toward the opposite extreme and endeavored to leave every man just as free and independent personally as was consistent with the maintenance of a reasonably strong government. All were to be common citizens of the state, owing implicit allegiance, paying taxes,

quite unparalleled. But the difficulty was that there was one great class of men who were getting little or no share in the good things thus falling to the common people's lot. This fact was not very apparent—at least it seems not to have been at all clearly recognized—until about the close of the first quarter of the nineteenth century. It then began to be perceived that all the reforms and changes of the past generation had brought but very slight relief to the large and rapidly increasing body of men who lived solely by wages received for daily toil.

If the reader will stop to consider the matter he will observe that while the fine phrases of the philosophers and the idealistic talk of the revolutionary orators boldly declared for the equality of all men—the ordinary laboring man included—there was very little in the final readjustment of society which in any way benefited this same laboring man. He owned no land; hence he had never been called upon to pay a land tax and the obnoxious game laws framed in the interest of the noble huntsman had no terrors for him. He raised no grain or grapes; hence he had never been compelled to submit to legalized robbery at a lord's mill or wine-press. He was not engaged in trade; hence the tolls and tariffs exacted at every boundary crossing did not concern him, except as they may have affected the prices he had to pay for certain commodities. He had no lord; hence he had not been annoyed by being summoned to labor on the latter's farm or by being called out on certain nights of every week to beat the swamps to prevent the lord's slumbers being disturbed by frogs.

All of these various evils, which had indeed borne heavily upon some men, were totally abolished without appreciably changing his condition. The mob that stormed the Bastille in 1789 was composed largely of landless, hand-to-mouth men like himself, but before the Revolution had progressed far its fortunes had fallen en-

tirely into the hands of men industrially one stage higher in rank—the small traders and manufacturers, the shop-keepers, and especially the small land-owners and other men who, if not owners, had at least some vital interest



FRIEDRICH WILHELM IV OF PRUSSIA

Forced by the Revolution of 1848 to grant a constitution.

in land. As a consequence the wage-laborer dropped pretty much out of account. When deeds of violence were to be done his services were in demand, but when social and industrial policies were being shaped he was not called into council. He was better off after the Revolution than before, but by no means so much so as the man whose bit of land or opening in trade gave him an independent opportunity to prosper and be happy. And in the course of time it very naturally occurred to this obscure laborer that he was not getting his dues in the new society, as he certainly had not in the old, and that something more ought to be done in his behalf.

The problem became rapidly more important because of the great expansion of manufacturing which characterized the first half of the nineteenth century.



In a subsequent article upon the social and industrial movements in England in this period we shall consider at some length the introduction of machinery and the rise of the factory system which produced the so-called industrial revolution, and hence it is unnecessary to go into these matters just here. Suffice it to say that as the result of a long series of inventions during the period from about 1775 to 1830 the manufacturing of cotton and woollen cloth, wearing apparel, leather goods, and many other things ceased to be done in private houses and began to be concentrated in the modern factory.

This change was less rapid and complete on the continent than in England, but it was easily of sufficient importance to revolutionize industrial conditions. Profits of manufacture increased, capitalists began to invest heavily in manufacturing plants, and large groups of laborers were drawn together in the towns to take advantage of the new opportunities for employment. Thus the actual number of wage earners was increased, for many men who had been eking out an existence as unsuccessful traders or farmers now abandoned these means of support and became clearly identified with the wage earning class. And by being thus concentrated in the centers of manufacture the members of this class gained much in strength and influence. They became acquainted with one another, discussed the conditions under which they were living and working, and in time began to build up organizations to promote their common interests.

Capital and labor, in other words, were becoming more clearly differentiated. A vast body of workingmen was being set over against a class of employers, and the questions which were thus being pushed into the foreground of popular inquiry and discussion were not so much those of government and politics as those of wages, rents, prices, investments, and profits. The society of the time took on a

tinge of industrialism as predominant as its characteristic of militarism had been during the Middle Ages.

Now the discussion of industrial topics by the laboring classes did not proceed far until it became evident that there was still discontent, if not so general, still fully as keen as had existed during the days of Louis XV and XVI. While the small farmers and tradesmen, who had revolutionized France in 1789 and after, were as a rule prosperous and contented, the common laborer felt himself being left behind and was very ready to take up the cry for reform.

Wealth was rapidly increasing, especially among the capitalists, but also in a very apparent measure among the middle class or *bourgeoisie*. Yet wages did not rise and the man dependent on wages was little better off than his father or grandfather had been. Prices were maintained generally at a high figure, and thus living expenses showed no definite tendency to become less burdensome. Wages did not rise chiefly because of the surplus of labor. Manufacturing grew rapidly, but not so rapidly as the class of men and women dependent upon it. Moreover there were no well defined lines of promotion for laborers who acquired special skill. It was the exception and not the rule for a man to rise by his merit from one sort of work to another commanding better pay. In the rush, too, with which factories were constructed no regard was paid to sanitary conditions, and of course the state had not yet reached the point of imposing any regulations in this regard. So that the surroundings in which thousands of men had to work were offensive and dangerous, and it was but seldom that an employer could be brought by argument to ameliorate matters, especially if such action involved any considerable expense. As factories became larger more men were employed and these frequently became so numerous that they were out of all personal touch with their employers. Says one writer :

Frequently, it must be acknowledged, the employer looked upon his laborers as mere beasts of burden, and regarded their labor in the same light as any other commodity, which was sold in the marketplace. They were hired for the cheapest price, worked to the utmost limit of endurance, and, when used-up, thrown aside like any other old worthless machine. The capitalist grew richer, and among the higher classes of society luxury and extravagance increased. The laborer, noticing this, asked himself if his lot had in any respect improved. He was inclined to deny that it had. His daily bread was not earned with less toil, nor was he surer of an opportunity to work. His existence was as uncertain and as full of anxiety as ever. . . . A division of society into caste-like classes was taking place. The rich were becoming richer; it was thought the poor were becoming poorer. Free competition imposed no restraints upon the powerful. They were at liberty to exploit the poor to their heart's content. The strength on the one side was so great, and the capability of resistance on the other so insignificant that there could exist no real freedom of contract. The laborers were prepared to listen to those who should preach them a gospel of hope, even if it involved violent change. Revolution *might* help them; it could not render their lot more hopeless.

The result of all this was a decided popular reaction against the individualistic order of society ushered in by the Revolution. Men began to see that a society in which every man should be free to do practically what he pleased, barring a few generally recognized offenses against life and property, might be very far from an ideal one; that it might indeed become the scene of terrible oppression of the weak by the strong and shameless exploitation of the ignorant by the intelligent. The term commonly applied to this system in early nineteenth century Europe was *laissez-faire*, that is, the policy of "let alone." Men under it were to be given the widest range of freedom and just as few checks as possible were to be imposed upon their activities. However pretty the scheme looked on paper, a few

years' trial proved it a hopeless failure as a practical rule of society. Many of the old restraints on men, thrown off in the course of the Revolution, were obnoxious, and the great majority of people would have been unwilling to see them re-



LOUIS KOSSUTH

Leader of Hungarian Revolution of 1848.

stored. But this did not mean that there were no dangers in the other direction. There were such dangers, many of them, and we must now consider briefly some solutions brought forward by students, philosophers, and reformers for the perplexing problems which these dangers created.

The two words which with more or less accuracy are made to comprehend practically all of these solutions are *socialism* and *communism*. The term "socialism" was coined in England in 1835 and was introduced into economic discussion in a

French book published in 1840. Since that time it has had a great variety of meanings attached to it, the number being unfortunately enhanced by reason of the world-wide controversies that have raged concerning theories of social organiza-



FRANCOIS NOEL BABEUF

tion and control which the word has been supposed to include. For the present, it is sufficient simply to say that socialism is the antithesis of individualism, involving a close organization of men in a state which undertakes to control the production, distribution, and consumption of economic goods. Communism is not greatly different, though it should be distinguished. It denotes an abolition of all ranks and classes in society and an equal sharing in all the products of human labor.

From first to last socialism has been based upon the apparently undeniable fact that the gradual result of centuries of social evolution, hastened greatly by industrial conditions in Europe between

1800 and 1850, has been to cut off a large class of men from the possession of land and capital and thus to render them absolutely dependent upon their wage-earnings for an ordinary living. Of course, it is the owners of land and the possessors of capital who are able to engage in large business enterprises demanding labor, so that it is for these men that the wage-earner must necessarily work. Instead of having first hand access to natural resources, he is at the mercy of some more fortunate fellow man who has been able to monopolize them. To this artificial relation, declares the socialist, are due all, or a very large share, of the world's economic ills today, and it is because he believes this that he advocates the doing away with private property and the vesting of all the means of production in the common state which, it is supposed, would be able to administer them with fairness and in such manner that no one need be deprived of a comfortable living.

Socialism as a vital doctrine of national organization took a thorough hold in France in the period between the Bourbon restoration in 1814 and the Revolution of 1848. The great Revolution had called out many expressions of socialistic sentiment, and one of its active participants indeed, François Noël Babeuf, stands at the head of a long list of French socialist writers and agitators reaching from that day to this, and in sketching the early development of socialistic thought in France one should not fail to say a few words about him.

Babeuf had studied enthusiastically the socialistic institutions of the Greeks and Romans, and in his admiration of them went so far as to take to himself the name of the noted tribune Gracchus. It was he who started the first socialistic newspaper ever published—the *Tribune of the People*. On account of his political activities he was imprisoned in 1795, but was soon released and then put himself at the head of the so-called "conspiracy of Babeuf" to overthrow the Directory

and set up in France a communistic millennium. Seventeen thousand men were made ready for this enterprise, but at the last moment the plot was betrayed and in May, 1797, the leader was guillotined, declaring that after his arduous labors he was now "but wrapping himself in a virtuous slumber."

The essence of Babeuf's doctrine is summed up in his two declarations that "The aim of society is the happiness of all, and happiness consists in equality," and that "Nature has given to every man an equal right to the enjoyment of all goods." This equality was to be actual and absolute, but Babeuf was not so foolish as to suppose that it could be brought about at once by legislation or by any other means. In brief, his method was for the state as quickly as possible to form a great common property by taking over the possessions of corporations and public institutions, and then to absorb the property of private individuals by assuming ownership upon the death of the existing incumbents. In half a century under this plan the transfer would be complete. The state would own everything, the people individually nothing. Then it would be necessary for the people making up the body politic to elect officers to manage all the lines of production and distribution, and the era of plenty for all and superabundance for none would be at hand.

The favored lines of occupation were to be agriculture, fishing, navigation, trade, war, teaching, and the study of the sciences. Literature and art were to be discouraged. So far was the idea of equality carried that all citizens of the new commonwealth were to dress alike, except for differences of sex and age, eat the same amount and the same varieties of food, and receive precisely the same course of education; and the children were to be separated from their parents and brought up under conditions which would make socialists of them and prevent the natural development of differences in taste and ability.

Babeuf's system of course did not in his own day have a chance to be tried, but all human experience teaches that it was utterly impracticable and false. The one possible result of its operation would be the killing out of individual



CLAUDE HENRI COMTE DE SAINT-SIMON

initiative and the reducing of all men to a dead level of stagnant, animalish living. It was fortunate for France and for Europe that a régime of this sort was not set up to cap the long list of Revolutionary follies.

Probably the greatest name connected with socialistic speculation in the first half of the nineteenth century is Count Henri de Saint-Simon, a most interesting man who began life as a soldier, fighting under Washington in the American Revolution, but who gave up brilliant prospects in the military career to study politics and social science. The creed upon which he built was an inspiring one. "The imagination of poets," he declared, "has placed the golden age at the cradle of the human race, amidst the ignorance and grossness of the earliest times. It had been better to relegate the iron age to that period. The golden age of humanity is

not behind us; it is to come, and will be found in the perfection of the social order. Our fathers have not seen it; our children will one day behold it. It is our duty to prepare the way for them."

From 1803 until his death in 1825



LOUIS BLANC

Saint-Simon, generally in direst poverty and often suffering from hunger and illness, worked as few men have ever worked to triumph over crushing odds and evolve a new social order which would so commend itself as to win adoption. Three important books—"The Catechism of Industry," "The New Christianity," and "The Industrial System"—came from his pen, the second mentioned being the best outline of the author's views. Saint-Simon was much more of a thinker and scholar than Babeuf and his social doctrines were based on wide investigation and deep reasoning which embraced pretty much the whole realm of religion, industry, and knowledge. The French Revolution, he held, had cleared the way for a new social organization, and it was his chief object to point out to men what

must be the essential characteristics of this new system and also the most probable means of realizing them. It is obviously out of the question here even to enumerate all of Saint-Simon's beliefs and teachings. In general they were profoundly socialistic, though they were entirely free from the conception of society as a great mass of men cast exactly in the same mould which had made Babeuf's system so repulsive.

Saint-Simon's fundamental principle was that individual initiative must be encouraged, and that while the state must assume control of the production and distribution of goods, strict account should be taken of every man's industry and skill and returns made to him in exact proportion. Equal distribution was very rigidly held to be more unjust than the inequalities that actually prevailed. Revolution was to be avoided and everything that was good and true and beautiful was to be encouraged. The ascetic spirit was to have no recognition. The one great aim of Saint-Simon and his followers was to work out some plan under which men would have just as great inducements to work and to do their best as they could have under free competition, but yet they would be assured of the rightful fruits of their endeavor as against any other men who who might be more fortunate or more powerful. It was because of this genuine worthiness of his aim that Saint-Simon stands so high in the list of early nineteenth century reformers. His scheme for the concentrating of all property under the control of the state has never won general acceptance, but the shrewdness with which he perceived the real needs of society and the candor with which he searched for remedies for them must command our admiration today.

Another important socialist of the period was Charles Fourier, traveler, philosopher, author of many books, and social experimenter. Fourier's thought and writing was perhaps the most fantastic,

often positively ridiculous, known to Europe in his day. His socialism was not, however, quite so thoroughgoing as either Babeuf's or Saint-Simon's, for he proposed to leave in his ideal society a place for private capital under certain conditions. Likewise in the distribution of products there was to be neither Babeuf's exact equality nor Saint-Simon's system of rewarding merit. He proposed to set aside a liberal maximum to be given to each citizen of the state, and then to divide the rest among labor, capital, and talent—the first receiving five-twelfths, the second four-twelfths, and the third three-twelfths. Furthermore, the man who worked at what was useful was to receive more than he who worked at what was merely agreeable, and he who gave his energies to labor that was necessary was to receive more than either. It is interesting to observe that Fourierism was brought to America about 1840, and that in this country since that time there have been not fewer than thirty-four distinct attempts to build up communities according to Fourier's teachings. The most famous of these was Brook Farm, in which people of such note as George Ripley, Charles A. Dana, Horace Greeley, and Nathaniel Hawthorne were more or less interested.

Three other French socialists of the middle of the century, any one of whom is worthy of careful consideration, were Etienne Cabet, the author of the "*Voyage en Icarie*" and the founder of the idealistic community known as Icaria, near Corning, Iowa; Pierre Joseph Proudhon, the inveterate enemy of private property; and Louis Blanc, who is perhaps best known popularly through the French experiment with national workshops for which he was mainly responsible. Of these, Blanc was in many ways the most important, and with a few words about his doctrines and influence we must pass from the subject of socialistic speculation and experiment.

The true purposes of life, according to

Blanc, are happiness and development, and no form of society is just unless it gives a man ample opportunity for the realization of both of these. Obviously the prevailing system of unrestricted competition did not measure up to this standard; hence Blanc condemned it. Individualism, private property, and private competition, he declared, must be abandoned, and in their stead must be erected an industrial commonwealth founded on the principles of fraternity. "Fraternity," declared Blanc, "means that we are all common members of one



ETIENNE CABET

great family." The first step, he believed, should be a recognition of the concept that every man has a natural right to labor for his own support. If employment was not to be had at the hands of private individuals the state must provide it; hence the system of national workshops (*ateliers sociaux*) pro-

posed by Blanc and for a little time in 1848 actually realized in Paris. Through this means was gradually to be brought about the entire nationalization of production and in the end the socializing of the state.

Like Saint-Simon, Blanc clearly recognized the natural inequalities of men and had no thought of establishing an impos-



PIERRE JOSEPH PROUDHON

sible uniformity among them. His basis for the distribution of goods by the state was the actual needs of the various classes of people. Every man was expected to produce according to his ability and to consume according to his wants. This scheme represented in many ways the nearest approach to absolute justice made by any of the thinkers and writers of the period, and it is not to be questioned that it has been of immense influence ever since it was first propounded.

It was just when the writings of Saint-Simon, Cabet, Fourier, Louis Blanc,

Proudhon, and other leading socialists had taken their fullest effect among the common people of France and surrounding countries that there came on the movement generally known as the Revolution of 1848. Doubtless it was caused in no small degree by the prevalence of socialistic doctrines at the time. It appears that in the larger cities, especially Paris, practically all the workingmen were adherents of one or another socialistic school, and even among the wage-earners of the country districts much the same thing was true.

The Revolution of 1848 was the third and last great wave of political and social upheaval which spread over western Europe in the times of the aristocratic reaction inaugurated by Metternich and his allies. It began in Paris, where the primary purpose of the discontented populace was to put an end to the unsatisfactory reign of the so-called citizen-king, Louis Philippe, and especially to get rid of the brilliant but much disliked prime minister Guizot. The outbreak was immediately precipitated by the refusal of the government to permit the Liberal party to hold a great political mass meeting on the significant date of Washington's birthday. Driven by popular antipathy to the point where they had to attempt to ward off criticism by preventing an ordinary conclave of citizens, Louis Philippe and Guizot were manifestly fighting in their last ditch to maintain their place and authority. The Orleanist monarchy never had been strongly established and with the first breath of revolution it promptly gave away. February 22 Paris fell into the hands of a desperate mob of socialists and radicals, who took possession of the Hôtel de Ville and forced the luckless king to abdicate and seek refuge across the Channel in England.

After some days of extreme disorder it was agreed that the time for a republic had come. A Constituent Assembly worked out a constitution providing for

a legislature of one house and a president to serve a term of four years, both to be chosen by the people under a system of manhood suffrage. December 10, Louis Napoleon, a nephew of the great Napoleon, and with little but the prestige of his name to recommend him, was elected first president of the French Republic.

During the Paris uprising the government had been compelled to announce as its own conviction the great doctrine of Louis Blanc, to the effect that it was the duty of the state to give every man a chance to work. And in fact the pressure of the populace was such that national workshops had to be established for the benefit of the unemployed. The vast throngs of men whom the Revolution had thrown out of work were organized in a "workshop army," in brigades, companies and squads. Full wages were paid to all whom it was possible to employ and three-fourths to those for whom nothing at all could be found to do. The fact is that the government really had but little profitable labor which it could give out, so that it was utterly overwhelmed by the hundred thousand workingmen who clamored for employment at its hands.

Care had been taken to place in charge of the experiment a man by the name of Emile Thomas, who was known to be a personal enemy of Louis Blanc and who naturally was disposed to contribute as much as he could to the failure of the enterprise. There is little reason to doubt that the government intended that such failure should result in order that Louis Blanc and the whole socialist movement might be discredited in the eyes of the laboring classes. The workshops were maintained for only a few months, but the semi-military character which they gave to the organization of workingmen was of much consequence in the later stages of the Revolution, particularly in the struggle over the establishment of the new republic.

The Revolution of 1848 spread to all

parts of western Europe, Germany, Austria, and Italy being especially affected. In Berlin and Vienna there were uprisings which resulted in the abolition of absolutism and the establishing of constitutional government. But in both the Germanic countries the greatest problems of the hour were connected with the matter of national unity rather than social and industrial reform, and hence they do not call for consideration here. Likewise in Italy the one great object of patriots and statesmen was the consolidating of the numerous petty and mutually jealous Italian states into one strong and commanding power. Some phases of this Italian movement will be alluded to in a subsequent article. It may merely be observed here that for the time being the Revolution of 1848 did not achieve any great success outside of France, risings of the people in Germany, Austria, and Italy being generally suppressed and the "pernicious principle of nationalities," so much detested by Metternich and his co-laborers, being apparently quite thoroughly stamped out. Even in France the much vaunted republic was destined to be swallowed up in less than a decade in the poorly administered empire of the egotistical and melodramatic Louis Napoleon.

#### TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- I. The modern era of individualism.
  1. Contrast with character of the Old Régime.
  2. Effect of the French Revolution.
  3. Principle of *laissez-faire*.
- II. Failure of this system of individualism.
  1. Expectations of revolutionists not realized.
  2. Prosperity of bourgeoisie after the Revolution off-set by discontent of the wage-earning classes.
  3. Little or no gains for the ordinary laborer.
- III. The problem of the laboring classes.\*
  1. Great expansion of industry after 1800.
  2. Growth of the factory system.
  3. Conditions of factory labor.
  4. Capital and labor more differentiated.
- IV. Rise of socialism and communism.
  1. Definition of these terms.



2. Fundamental principles.
3. Socialism in era of the Revolution—career and doctrines of Babeuf.
- V. Leading French socialists of the period 1800—1850.
  1. Saint-Simon (1760-1825)—his doctrines.
  2. Charles Fourier (1772-1837)—his doctrines.
  3. Etienne Cabet (1788-1856)—his doctrines.
  4. Pierre Joseph Proudhon (1809-1865)—his doctrines.
  5. Louis Blanc (1813-1882)—his doctrines.
- VI. The Revolution of 1848.
  1. Socialistic agitation in Paris.
  2. Overthrow of Louis Philippe.
  3. The government workshops.
  4. Establishment of a republic and election of Louis Napoleon as president.
  5. The Revolution in Germany, Austria and Italy.

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Show how it is true that relationships which bound men together in 1789 are no longer active. 2. Why were not all of the dreams of the revolutionists realized? 3. What was the position of the landless laboring man before and after the Revolution? 4. Why did this class assume greater importance in the earlier part of the nineteenth century? 5. What change came about in the questions discussed by these men? 6. What were the main causes of their discontent? 7. What is meant by "laissez-faire" (less-ay-fair)? 8. Where and when did the word socialism come into use? 9. How does communism differ from it? 10. What are the main principles underlying socialism? 11. What was Babeuf's scheme for the reorganization of society? 12. How did Saint-Simon's views compare with those of Babeuf? 13. What was the difference between Saint-Simon's and Fourier's system of distributing the products of labor? 14. What noted Americans made experiments with Fourier's doctrines? 15. Name three other noted French socialists of this period. 16. What were some of the leading doctrines of Louis Blanc? 17. How did the Revolution of 1848 in France begin? 18. Describe the French experiment with national workshops. 19. What change in the government of France resulted from the Revolution of 1848? 20. Why did the Revolution of 1848 have little influence in Germany, Austria and Italy?

#### SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Who was Gracchus and what reforms did he attempt? 2. Mention six American communities suggested by Fourier's teachings. 3. What is the Sorbonne in Paris? 4. What is the Collège de France? 5. Who are known as the "Immortals"? 6. What great social movement in England was contemporaneous with the socialistic agitation leading up to the Revolution of 1848 in France? 7. Who

were known as Red Republicans and why? 8. What was the line of relationship between Napoleon Bonaparte and Louis Napoleon? 9. Who was Louis Napoleon's rival for election to the presidency of the French Republic in 1848?

#### BIBLIOGRAPHY

Upon the general subject of early French socialism the two briefest and best treatises are to be found in Professor Ely's "French and German Socialism," pp. 1-143, and Thomas Kirkup's "History of Socialism," pp. 22-58. Professor Ely's little book is particularly to be recommended. It is published by Harper & Brothers and may be had for seventy-five cents. There are numerous general discussions of socialism and histories of socialistic doctrines. Some of the very best of these, relating to socialism in Europe rather than in America, are included in the Social Science series of books published in England by Swan Sonnenschein & Co., but available at slight cost and to be found in numerous libraries in this country. Especially may be mentioned in this series E. Belfort Bax's "Religion of Socialism;" the same writer's "Ethics of Socialism;" Frederick Engel's "Socialism, Utopian and Scientific;" Schäffle's "Quintessence of Socialism;" W. D. P. Blair's "Handbook of Socialism;" Morris and Bax's "Socialism: Its Origin and Growth;" Yves Guyot's "The Tyranny of Socialism;" and Gustave Simonsai's "Plain Examination of Socialism." In this same series there is a volume entitled "Selections From the Works of Fourier," in which most of Fourier's essential doctrines will be found stated in English translation. Werner Lombart's "Socialism and the Social Movement in the Nineteenth Century" (Putnam) is to be had easily and is excellent. The reader of French will find Louis Blanc's "Histoire de Dix Ans" (History of the Ten Years, 1830-1840) invaluable. Madam Sand's great novels "Consulo" and "The Countess of Rudolstadt" have been translated into English and will be found full of interesting side-lights upon socialistic agitation of the period.

On the Revolution of 1848 the reader is referred for short accounts to West's "Modern History," pp. 417-422; Robinson's "History of Western Europe," chap. 40; Thatcher and Schwill's "General History of Europe," pp. 532-546; and Judson's "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," pp. 101-117. G. Lowes Dickinson's "Revolution and Reaction in Modern France," C. Edmund Maurice's "The Revolutionary Movement of 1848-9 in Italy, Austria, Hungary, and Germany" (Putnam), and Pierre de Coubertin's "France Since 1814" will be found helpful. A more special work, but very interesting, is Baroness Bonde's "Paris in 1848." Documents pertaining to the history of the period may be found in translation in Anderson's "Constitutions and Other Documents Illustrative of the History of France, 1780-1900." Extended reading may be selected from Fyffe's "Modern Europe to 1878" or Andrews's "Historical Development of Modern Europe."



## Munich: The City on the Isar

By N. Hudson Moore

**A** TRAVELER, sensitive to impressions, will find that the memories of a place will be tinged largely by the manner of arrival. If the approach be uninteresting, or through unpleasant surroundings, this memory will cling to the mind while happier details are lost. In order to come to Munich in the happiest manner, we will go there from Lucerne, which will take us across Lake Constance, the sail lasting about an hour and a half, over water, "the bluest of things green, the greenest of things blue," dappled with cloud shadows, and hemmed in by purple hills beyond which gleam the snow capped Alps.

Your first idea of the city as you emerge from the "Central Bahnhof," or great union station as we should call it, is of its exceeding newness. Wide streets stretch away in every direction, and an air of complete up-to-dateness pervades everything. It is only after you have wandered through the old parts, delighted in some of the fine churches, and seen what remains of the old towers, that you will feel the flavor of antiquity which is one of the Old World's greatest charms,

particularly to one whose lines are cast in the new.

A glance at the map of southern Germany will show you that Munich was not called into being by natural causes, or by commercial advantages. It is the whim of kings, and has arisen on a marshy plateau by the side of an unnavigable mountain stream, amidst an unattractive country, and situated on no natural highways between nations or sections.

To say that Munich was forced into being as long ago as the twelfth century, takes us back to that struggle between Germany and Rome, when the Bishop of Freising claimed for his See the best regions along the Isar, particularly those where there were salt works. Now the Bishops, having in 1156 already held this See for two centuries, considered it their own, and ruled it accordingly, as they found it of great pecuniary advantage. They levied heavy tolls upon the salt, established depots for its storage and sale, and controlled a bridge over the Isar, which was used to collect tolls from visitors.

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This is the fourth of a series of nine articles entitled "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany." The complete list in THE CHAUTAUQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

The Belgium of Charles the Bold and Philip II, by Clare de Graffenried (September).

Twentieth Century Belgium, by Clare de Graffenried (October).

Hanover, Hildesheim, Brunswick, by Clara M. Stearns (November).

Munich: The City on the Isar, by N. Hudson Moore (December).

Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck, by Wolf von Schierbrand (January).

Town and Country Byways, by Clara M. Stearns (February).

Weimar, by Prof. Robert W. Deering (March).

What Berlin Offers, by Professor Otto Heller (April).

University Life (May).



FRAUENKIRCHE, MUNICH

But the great Frederick I, "Barbarossa," (Red Beard), the most noted emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, thought differently, and in 1156 presented the Dukedom of Bavaria to Henry the Lion. Henry, being a lion, soon demanded his share. He pulled down the Bishop's castle, the bridge over the Isar and the salt works, and looked about for a suitable place to found a depot of his own. He chose a wooded spot on a flat plain, and allowed some monks who were driven out of Hungary, to build for themselves here some rude dwellings. Shortly the settlement became known as "Bei den Mönchen, the Place of the Monks, then München, and Munich. This name, "Mönchen," appears as early as 1158 in an act of Barbarossa, restoring to the Bishop of Freising some of his ancient rights, but the old time power of the church was broken and never again assumed its absolute sway. In the next century, 1255, Duke Lewis surrounded the city with walls, of which only some towers and gates remain in the interior of the city.

Not quite one hundred years later, 1327, the city was swept by fire, and rebuilt upon the lines which it now retains. Of course the most interesting part of the town is the old portion which lies almost in the heart of the great modern city, and you wander delighted amid the quaint carved and painted houses, and through the narrow streets, pleased to get away from the Corinthian and Doric temples, built under the direction of the indefatigable Lewis I, between the years 1825 when he ascended the throne and 1848 when his reign ended. It was the exertions of this prince that raised Munich from a second-rate German town to the position it now occupies, of fourth largest city in the German Empire. Lewis not only did much himself, but he bequeathed his enthusiasm to his successors.

Munich has no style of architecture of its own, but its modern buildings are copied from the antique, for which Lewis

I had a perfect passion. He empowered Klenze to carry out his architectural plans, Schwanthaler arranged the plastic adornments of the buildings, and Cornelius, with an army of pupils, painted the walls. This painting of the exterior walls is not always successful, as may be readily seen in the case of the new Pinakothek, built in 1846-1853, by Voit, and frescoed by Nilson from designs by Kaulbach. The paintings look crude, they detract from the dignity of the building, and suffer greatly from exposure to the weather.

Just about the center of the old city, which lies on the left bank of the Isar, almost in the form of a semi-circle, in the Frauen-Platz, stands the Frauenkirche or Church of Our Lady, the ancient cathedral of the Archbishopric of Munich and Freising. It is built in late Gothic style, 1468-1488, and was carefully restored from 1858-1868. Its two heavy spires dominate the landscape in whatever direction you go, and their effect is heightened by the cap-like domes which were placed on them early in the sixteenth century. There is no record why the spires were not finished as originally intended, but these caps which were merely temporary affairs have never been replaced. The church is of brick, not stone, and the interior is cool and dim, with beautiful old stained glass windows, and over the stalls carved figures of the apostles and prophets, which go back to the fifteenth century. On one pillar of the nave hangs a Turkish flag captured at Belgrade in 1688. It looks as if a breath of wind would cause it to disintegrate. There are many tombs in the church, one, a dark marble catafalque, built in 1622 to the memory of Emperor Lewis the Bavarian, who died in 1347. There are ancient tombstones on the outer walls, which one would like to study over, some of them hundreds of years old.

Munich and in fact all Germany, is rich in legends, and surrounded by perfect clouds of folk-lore, which is told you with

an appearance of simple faith that makes you unable to protest. No church in all the country has more of these tales connected with it than the Frauenkirche, the saddest of all being that of Fanny Zaloska, the most beautiful girl in Munich, who threw herself from one of the towers, upon learning that her lover was unfaithful. This tale was true, but it has many companions, which test credulity to the cracking point—of miracles worked, of marvelous cures, and of various wonders which appeal to an

ghostly about this, is seven feet three inches in diameter, and has the following quaint inscription:

My name is Susanna. I was cast in the name of Jesus, Luke, Matthew, Mark and John. The august Duke of Upper and Lower Bavaria, Albert, Count Palatine of the Rhine, was my designer. I was brought here from Regensburg. I drive away evil weather, and ward off death. Hans Ernst cast me, and when you number from God's birth, one thousand four hundred and ninety-three. Tetragrammaton.

If you walk down Frauenstrasse, and pass along Neuhauserstrasse, you will come to another old church, that of St.

Michael, built by the Jesuits in 1583-97. The front contains a fine statue of St. Michael in bronze, and above in niches are the apostles. In the transept rests Eugene Beauharnais, a stranger in a strange land, like Napoleon's own beloved son, who, born King of Rome, died Duke of Reichstadt, and lies buried in Vienna.

While St. Michael's church is interesting on account of its age, the old Jesuits' College adjoining (of which the photograph shows a glimpse) is more so. It contains most valuable collections of ancient coins, prehistoric objects, and specimens from the animal and plant kingdoms, said to be the most complete in Europe.

Retracing our steps a little, and going down Kaufingerstrasse, we come out in Marien-Platz, connected with most of the early history of Munich. In the center rises the Column of the Madonna, erected in 1638 by Elector Maximilian I, to commemorate the victory on the Weisse Berg near Prague. The Virgin, the tutelary

saint of Bavaria, crowns the monument, while below at each corner are four allegorical figures which contend against a lion, a dragon, a viper, and a basilisk. The New Rathaus on the right hand is a modern building, 1867-1874, in Gothic style, and we pass it



ST. MICHAEL'S CHURCH, MUNICH  
Showing a corner of the old Jesuits' college.

imaginative people. Of course so ancient and so beloved a church as this would not be left without the acme of legendary lore, so the ghost of the Frauenkirche walks at will among the pillars of the crypt, and its appearances are duly reported. The old bell, and there is nothing



#### MARIEN-PLATZ, MUNICH

Showing Column of the Madonna in center, the New Rathaus on the left, the Old Rathaus on right.

quickly by to concentrate our attention on the Old Rathaus, which dates from the fourteenth century, and which is on the opposite side of the way. It is partially concealed in the illustration, by the Column of the Madonna, but the pointed tower with the clock, which stands out over the street belongs to it. In the fine old hall within are many interesting trophies of the early history of the city, and the ceiling is adorned with beautifully carved woodwork. Here have been held many stormy meetings when the weal or woe of the city has been under discussion. Here also were held meetings of the guilds of the various trades which were such powers in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Here hang their old flags and ensigns, the emblems so faded that they can hardly be distinguished.

The church which seems to bound the street is the church of St. Peter, dating back to 1170, but repeatedly restored.

The roundish tower just appearing over the gables of the Old Rathhaus belongs to the church which covers a vast extent of ground.

Leaving Marien-Platz, and following along Deinerstrasse and then Residenzstrasse, we come to Max-Joseph-Platz, situated between the old part of the city and the new. In the center is a modern statue (1825) of King Max-Joseph. The long, many-windowed building beyond is the Royal Palace. The photograph shows but one part of it, the Königsbau. There are two other portions, immense buildings also, one called the Festsaalbau, and the most interesting and oldest known as the Alte Residenz. This latter building was begun in 1596, and finished in 1619. It is built around four courts, Kaiserhof, Küchenhof, Brunnenhof, and Kapellenhof, which being interpreted mean, Courts of the Emperor, Kitchen, Fountain, and Chapel.



MAX-JOSEPH-PLATZ, MUNICH  
Statue of King Max-Joseph in center, Royal Palace in distance.



UNIVERSITY, MUNICH



ISARTHOR, MUNICH



LUDWIGSTRASSE, MUNICH



The living apartments of the Alte Residenz are well worth a visit, since they are fitted up in the most elegant style of the seventeenth century. The most sumptuous room of all, the Throne room, was occupied in 1809 by Napoleon as a conqueror, and never, it is said, since. The treasury is also open for inspection, and besides the usual number of costly gems, there are some of historic interest, like the crowns of Henry and the Empress Cunigunde, dating from the year 1010; the Bohemian crown of Frederick V of the Palatinate, which was captured from him at the battle of Prague in 1620. There is also the famous "pearl of the Palatinate," more curious than beautiful, since it is half black.

In some of the apartments of the Festsaalbau and Königsbau are pictures which have acquired a reputation which they do not altogether merit, such as the paintings from the story of the Odyssey. These large canvases occupy six salons. Then there are thirty-six portraits of types of Bavarian beauty, from beggar maid to princess of the blood, and some other immense mural paintings of scenes from the life of Barbarossa. In the Königsbau are the Nibelungen Frescoes by Schnorr, begun in 1861, and detailing all the principal persons and acts of the poem. More interesting because they possess the "human interest" we are always in search of, is the collection of vehicles that have belonged to the rulers of Bavaria for the last three hundred years. These are stored in the Royal Coach House and Harness Rooms, back of the Alte Residenz. Curious and clumsy were many of those which go back to the days of the Elector Max Emanuel (1679) but breathing royalty in every painted panel and every gilded moulding. The state sledges are particularly noticeable, since they are so different from any vehicle to which we are accustomed, with their high backs, rich carvings and heavy runners.

The building on the right side of the

illustration of Max-Joseph-Platz, is the great Hof-und-National Theater, erected in 1823, after the first building which was exactly similar, had been destroyed by fire. To lovers of music and the drama, the superb theaters of Germany present a field of attraction quite unknown in this country. In the first place the performances are of high quality, performed by carefully trained actors and singers; they are at reasonable rates (you can get a choice reserved seat for one dollar), and lastly, since it is important that travelers keep early hours, it is agreeable to find that they begin early. If the opera is very long it begins at six, and you will be safely home at your hotel by ten o'clock.

For the drama the prices are less than for the opera, eighty cents being the rate for a reserved seat, and here you may see the great plays of Goethe or Schiller, or something lighter if your fancy leads you that way. That the theaters of Germany are able to present these fine performances at such a moderate cost, is owing to the fact that the Government allows them large sums annually for their support.

The German nation has that agreeable characteristic of being able to lay aside business cares and worries, and give itself up to pleasure. The people love to make their little festivals, to have a gala occasion, and enjoy and soothe themselves often in the simplest fashion. You will frequently find the city gay with bunting and fluttering flags, and on inquiry learn that it is the birthday of some notable, or some anniversary that the nation delights to honor.

Out of doors on a summer evening, many splendid military bands play in the small parks and concert gardens. Here you will see the German at his best, the day's work done, his family gathered about him, enjoying the balmy evening air, and the discourse of sweet sounds.

As we come out from the Hof theater on a fine morning, having climbed to the roof to get a superb view of the Alps,

let us take one of those delightful little *droschkes*, or one horse cabs that are standing in a row at the sidewalk. The cost is small, but one dollar for a trip of three hours, with a few *pfennigs* extra as "*trink gelt*" for the driver.

From Max-Joseph-Platz we can drive down Residenzstrasse, having a good view of the palace on the right, and then on down the broad modern Ludwigstrasse, which, very bright and clean to be sure, is in no way distinctive. On either hand are churches and schools, and quite far out on this street is the University, an object of great pride to Munich. Though housed in a comparatively modern building, the University was founded by Duke Ludwig of Bavaria with the approval of Pope Pius II as a "*Studium Generale of Ingolstadt*." The members of the faculty took an oath of loyalty to the See of Rome.



BAVARIA STATUE, MUNICH

Although the bull authorizing the opening of the institution was issued in 1459, the doors were not opened to pupils until 1472. True to its pledge the University of Ingolstadt remained faithful to the Church of Rome during the trying period of the Reformation, and later. In 1556 the Jesuits got control and the attendance fell off, but under the guidance of Herr Ickstalt their influence was gradually destroyed. Under Ludwig Maximilian (whose name the University now bears) it was moved to Landshut in 1800, and then, in 1826, to Munich where it has since remained.

A visit is of interest to us on account of the collections gathered there, as the Government has transferred to the University the Botanical Garden, Anatomical Theater, Observatory, and a valuable collection of coins. The immense library has over four hundred thousand volumes, and two thousand manuscripts. Nearly four thousand students are enrolled here each year.

In addition to the University and affiliated with it, though placed in a building on the opposite side of the way, is the Collegium Georgianum, founded in 1494 for the education of Catholic priests. There is also, in addition to these, the Maximilianum, founded in 1852 and opened in 1876, for the training of talented Bavarian youths, the income of the latter institution being largely supplied by the Government, and amounting to about two hundred and fifty thousand dollars a year.

There is a small street leading down from the University to the beautiful English Garden, and here is many a quiet nook where the studious may rest and read, or be tempted to while away in meditation hours that should be spent in study. On returning to the square, round which all these buildings are grouped, we find our *droschke* driver nodding in the shade, and direct him to drive us to the great statue of Bavaria, stopping only to visit St. John's church by the way. He

takes us down the smoothly paved modern streets, and then through the more interesting "heart of Old Munich," till we reach Sendlingerstrasse, half way down which, and closely built in by the surrounding houses, we find the fine old St. John's, erected in 1773, and showing rich

in park-like gardens of their own, and then round the drive called the Bavaria Ring, till you come before the immense statue of Bavaria, which is placed on a side hill. Just why this statue was placed so near to the Hall of Fame, a Doric building put up in 1853, it is hard to say, since their proximity detracts from the appearance of both. If you are so minded you may climb up the interior of the statue by a spiral staircase, and look out from peep-holes in the head. This should be done however, if done at all, before the sun has had an opportunity to heat the metal.

From here it is not a long drive across the city, passing at last down the Frauenstrasse, to the Isarthor, another of those beautiful old towers that were built before 1350, when Duke Lewis walled the city. The fresco shows the entry of the Emperor, Lewis the Bavarian, into the city after the battle of Ampfing. This fresco was made by Nehn in 1831, and quite spoiled by an attempted restoration in 1881. The colors are now entirely crude, and it seems out of place on the lovely old gray tower. From the tower we cross the two arms of the Isar by way of the Zweibrückenstrasse and drive through the new city with its wide streets,

recrossing the river by the Luitpold Bridge, and going as straight as the streets will allow us to the Old Pinakothek, which we have had in our minds ever since we entered Munich.

The name "Pinakothek," seems harsh to American ears, but it is from the Greek, and simply means "Repository of Pictures." The building itself has not much to recommend it, is built in the Renaissance style, and was finished in 1836. It has one qualification so necessary in a picture gallery, that of being admirably lighted, and after you have

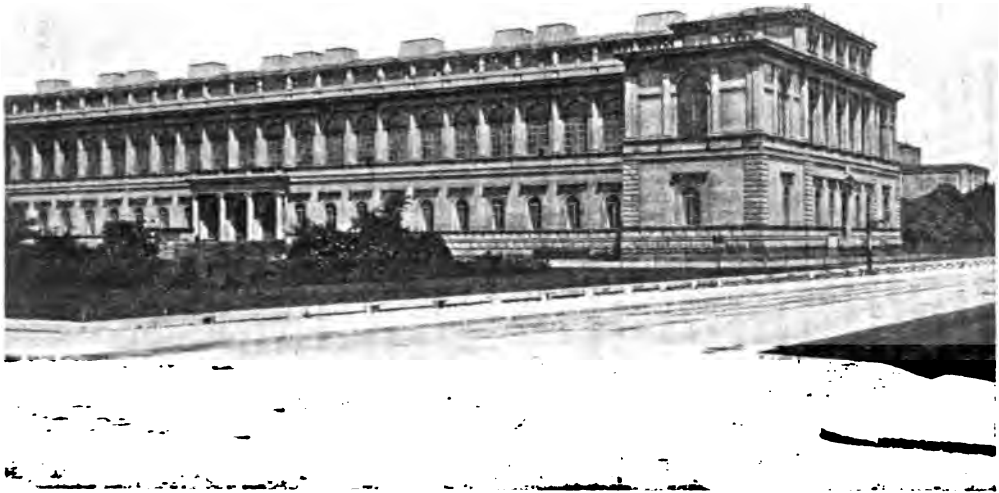


ST. JOHN'S CHURCH, MUNICH

carving on its front. The doors stand invitingly open, and in the dim interior it is pleasant to rest a while before returning to the sunshine outside and—today.

At the end of this bustling street is the old Sendlinger Tower which goes back to the fourteenth century, and which is one of those curious monuments of the past that constantly rise up before you in Munich, to connect the ancient town with the new.

The driver will probably take you down Nussbaumstrasse, past the General Hospital and Clinical Institute, situated



OLD PINAKOTHEK, MUNICH

once entered its charmed portals, you will care little for its exterior. This magnificent collection has been centuries in the gathering, for as early as 1500 the Bavarian princes began to display a love of art. Maximilian I, the great Elector, was an admirer of Albert Dürer, and at Nuremberg itself, secured some of his finest works. The Düsseldorf Gallery, founded by the Electors of the Palatinate, was in 1805 removed to Munich, so that the all-conquering Napoleon should not take it bodily to Paris. But it was lost to the Palatinate all the same, for it was afterwards regarded as that part of the inheritance of the Palatinate which should fall to Bavaria, and there it has ever since remained.

There is yet a third collection which has gone to swell the list of notable pictures to be seen here, and this was gathered by the brothers Boisserie, and a third man named Bertram, who rescued these pictures from the monasteries and churches which were suppressed at Col-

ogne during the years from 1805 to 1810. Since then valuable additions have been made by purchase, the most noted of these being the Wallerstein collection, which was bought by the alert King Lewis I, in 1828.

In entering almost any gallery, one turns over the catalogue instinctively to the name of the great Italian. In Munich he is represented by one of the most spirituelle of all his lovely Madonnas, for never did Raphael produce anything more appealing than his Madonna di Tempi, painted at the height of his Florentine period. Not the ravages of time, nor the depredations of the restorer, can rob this picture of its sentiment and beauty, and, after having for years known it only by photograph, the beautiful rich color of the original, the serene expression of the mother and the charming babe, come to you as the fulfillment of a dream.

The paintings are excellently arranged according to schools, and following the Italian salon come those devoted to



RUBENS AND HIS FIRST WIFE, MUNICH  
By Rubens.

Flemish art. With Vienna and Antwerp excepted, Munich has a finer showing of the versatility of Rubens than any other city. All his talents, and they were many, are seen to advantage here; his Lion

Hunts, Battle of the Amazons, Portraits, Last Judgment, and pictures of children, show him the master that he was. His portrait of himself and his first wife is more interesting and a better piece of





THE BEGGAR BOYS, MUNICH  
By Murillo.

work than his numerous portraits of Helen Fourment, though perhaps less widely known. The sketches for the events in the life of Marie de Médicis are here, the finished pictures being in the Louvre at Paris. Besides the many pictures which were undoubtedly by his

hand, are many others either painted by his pupils or under his direction.

One of the most popular pictures in the many galleries is the "Beggar Boys" by Murillo, which always has a circle of admirers about it. It has none of the characteristics of his Madonnas, but seems

painted with a rollicking touch, and the anxious expression of the dog as he waits for his turn is delightful. He is the true cur of all time, lean, clever, and living by his wits, like his masters.

Very different in every way is the pic-



ST. FRANCIS HEALING THE BEGGAR,  
MUNICH  
By Murillo.

ture by the same master, "St. Francis Healing the Beggar." The face of the saint, so full of sympathy and pity as he stretches forth his hands over the crippled form at his feet, is almost divine in its beauty, and will stay in your memory when miles of other pictures will have completely faded away.

Rembrandt, Van Dyck, the careful and exquisite interiors of the early masters of the Flemish school, delight you here as always, and you find that your visit must be several times repeated, in order to derive fully the pleasure that is your due.

There are modern pictures at the New Pinakothek, there are statues ancient and modern at the Glyptothek, but you will

find your feet insensibly taking you away from these, and back to the "Old Repository." But while taking the most pleasure in pictorial art, the Glyptothek must not be passed over with a word. In every way the Bavarian princes have sought to make an exhibit of plastic art from its infancy to modern times, and have purchased lavishly whenever the opportunity offered.

There are many busts of noble Romans; there are many examples of early Egyptian art; and, most instructive of all, are the sculptures from a Temple of Minerva, found in the Island of Aegina in 1811, and carefully brought to Munich and restored under the guidance of Thorwaldsen. This temple was erected originally after the Persian Wars, and the group represent the exploits of Telemon and his sons Ajax and Teucer in the war against the Trojans. There is a small model of the temple which shows where the sculptures were placed, and there are nearly one hundred of these pieces and fragments which form a valuable link in the history of art.

With such a gallery as the "Old Repository" for study it is not hard to conceive that Munich became an eagerly sought center for art students. The life has lost to a great extent the simplicity of twenty or thirty years ago. With the passing of the old type of German professor, formerly the butt of the comic papers, he of the shabby clothes and absent air, has gone much of the old student life. The modern professor is dressed in the mode, he commands a large salary which with his fees for lectures often exceed that of the German Secretary of State. He enjoys his advantages, good clothes, good food, the opera, athletics, and according to a critic of his own nationality, "his aspirations are often distinctly commercial." Many German professors earn from fifty to two hundred thousand marks (four marks to the dollar) a year, so the period of a pipe and a garret is quite past. The late

Prof. Lenbach, the great portrait painter, made his half million of marks annually, and his palatial home in Munich was one of the show places of the city. As for the Bavarian court circle, it is even more exclusive than the imperial court at Berlin. It has a ceremonial, a costume and a series of fêtes copied more or less from those at Vienna, and stiff in the extreme.

But the people, the happy pleasure-loving people, you may see disporting themselves in a thousand ways. There is the Carnival, during which masked balls, a favorite diversion, are held at various halls. The "Butcher's Festival" takes place every third year in the Marien-Platz, on Carnival Monday. The "Cooper's Dance" is celebrated but once in seven years, but the "October Festival," founded in 1810, and held each year since, takes place on the Theresian-Weise, a great plain in front of the statue of Bavaria. It lasts from the end of September to the middle of October. To it come peasants from all parts of Bavaria, and the picturesque costumes make it look like a scene from some gay opera. All sorts of sports, like horse-racing, running, the exhibition of prize animals, turn it into a regular country fair, and you will see artists on every hand trying to sketch the changing groups, or some particularly odd effect of costume. At this fair you will come the nearest to touching the habits of the Middle Ages that you will anywhere in Munich, for though this is an institution of less than a hundred years standing, it is but the revival of a custom that is hundreds of years old. These old fairs were the places where wanderers from all nations could be met, where engagements for service were made, where the buying of goods and

chattels for a whole year took place, and the knight and his lady were often fitted out as well as the peasant and his lass. So many of the old customs are dying out, that it is always well to plan your visits to include them if possible, and the great Theresian-Weise on a glorious October day is a sight not easily forgotten.

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is the character of the country surrounding Munich?
2. When and how was the city founded?
3. How does the old town contrast with the new?
4. Why does the Frauenkirche hold a position of peculiar importance?
5. What interest attaches to St. Michael's church and the adjoining college?
6. Describe the attractions of the Marien-Platz.
7. What associations of royalty are to be found at the Royal Palace?
8. What scenes form the subjects of mural decorations in this palace?
9. How does Germany show its appreciation of the theater?
10. What character and importance has the University of Munich?
11. How has the Old Pinakothek come into possession of its treasures?
12. What are some of the best known pictures of this gallery?
13. What is the most famous collection of the Glyptothek?
14. What characteristic national fêtes are held in Munich?

#### SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Who was Eugene Beauharnais?
2. How did Greece get her national flag?
3. What is Munich's greatest export?
4. Who was Fraunhofer and what were his famous "lines"?
5. What famous physicist holds the chair of experimental physics at Munich?
6. What chemist of world wide fame had his laboratory in Munich?
7. What famous German works were illustrated by Kaulbach?

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## Mozart and His Music\*

By Thomas Whitney Surette

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**I**N tracing the relationship between the life of a nation—its deeds of war, its intellectual development, the ideas which animate it—and the art which springs from it, we must always bear in mind two things which condition the relationship: first, the status of the artist in society; second, the stage to which the art, itself, has attained. If the artist is looked upon as an inferior; if he is not accepted as the peer of any other man he is hardly likely to attain the position of an intellectual leader; if, on the

other hand, the materials with which the artist works are undeveloped he cannot produce the highest results.

These two conditions existed in Mozart's time. The composer was almost a servant; his status was not that of an intellectual leader, and the instruments he had to work with were not fully developed.

Compare Mozart's position in society with that of Goethe, for example. Goethe was born in 1749, seven years before Mozart, and his contribution to German thought was universally recognized; he was a great intellectual leader.

Schiller, also, born in 1759, was raised to a position of prominence by the publication, at the age of 22, of his drama "The Robbers," and it was his "Ode to Freedom" that Beethoven finally used in the Ninth Symphony. Both Goethe and Schiller occupied positions in society far above that of Mozart although he was their peer. Mozart's G minor Symphony, for example, a work of the highest genius, placed him in no such position as Schiller had attained.

As to the instruments of that time it is sufficient to point to the illustrations in

\*The illustrative music to this article is as follows:

Mozart: Sonata in B flat major, No. 10 in Schirmer edition, 30 cents; 19 principal Sonatas (paper) \$1.00.

Mozart: G minor Symphony (optional), four hands, 50 cents; "Jupiter" Symphony (optional) 50 cents; volume containing 16 symphonies \$1.25.

Special reduced prices will be made to C. L. S. C. members. Inquiries should be sent to Editor THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Hyde Park, Chicago.

Some of the selections have been arranged for the pianola, in the Educational Series of the Music Lovers' Library, and may be purchased or rented on application to THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

These rolls are especially annotated, to agree with Mr. Surette's articles—the themes, structural divisions, etc., of each piece being plainly stamped on each roll. The rolls are absolutely correct and authoritative.

This is the fourth of a series of nine articles on "German Master Musicians." The complete list in THE CHAUTAUQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Bach (September), by William Armstrong.

Handel (October), Haydn (November), Mozart (December), Beethoven (January), Schubert (February), Schumann (March), by Thomas Whitney Surette.

Wagner (April), Brahms (May).



WOLFGANG AMADEUS MOZART

Born, Salzburg, 1756. Died, Vienna, 1791.

the article on "Haydn," and to note that, up to 1777, Mozart wrote for the clavichord and harpsichord. After that date he adopted the new pianofortes, instruments much like the one shown in the last number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. The technique of orchestral playing was not advanced in the eighteenth century, nor were the instruments themselves all as highly developed.

In short the composer did not emerge from the mass as a leader until Beethoven

appeared, and when he did emerge he took his new position only by a struggle against the conventionality which had hitherto kept composers down. But when he found himself in a position to speak freely he immediately enlarged his vocabulary and spoke with authority as a representative of the best thought of his day.

The foregoing statement explains why we find Mozart's music untouched by the important events of his time. How important they were history shows.



MOZART SINGING HIS REQUIEM

In the year of Mozart's birth the Seven Years' War—fraught with great consequences to Austria and Germany—commenced. A few decades before this the great Salzburg emigration took place, with its partial overflow into Virginia. Carlyle gives an interesting account of it in the chapter called "The Saltzburghers," in "Frederick the Great," which the student should read. It would be well, also, to read those portions of the same work which deal with the period between 1756 and 1791 in order to understand the significance of that part of Austrian history. It is further recommended to the student to read Carlyle's "The French Revolution" through the same period. It will then be seen how vitally important were the events occurring during Mozart's life.

Unlike Haydn, Mozart was not sprung from the peasant class. His father was an educated man, a musician of more than ordinary attainments, and the young composer was accustomed to appearing at courts and in celebrated houses when he

was but six years old. His biography may be read in one of the books named at the close of this article. A very brief but complete account of his life is contained in the Biographical Dictionary by Baker. Before turning to his music one more point remains to be explained.

It has been often noted by historians that there is an ebb and flow in the domain of ideas, as well as in the world of action. A great idea finally finds a man worthy of itself, and lifts him as on a wave, incarnating itself in him. Shakespeare, for example, is the culmination of a long line of writers; he incarnates the spirit or idea of his time; his name tips with light one of the waves, and after him there follows the lull, the ebb. So in materialistic things we find periods of stress followed by periods of calm; in government, also, it may be observed, as well as in the life of every man and woman.

Mozart represents the culmination of the pre-revolutionary school of music; his is the swan-song of the period of repose

and quiet which just preceded the nineteenth century; he is the last disciple, save Schubert, of pure beauty as an end in itself. The ingenuous charm of Haydn's simple tunes gives place here to an elegance and beauty to which they never quite attained. Haydn speaks the language of sincerity, happiness and simplicity; Mozart's language is more ideal, at the same time more elegant and noble.

Let the reader remember, now that these preliminaries have been stated, that the purpose of these articles is to study the music itself and to learn to appreciate it. We have briefly stated the chief con-

ditions—both personal and general—that affected Mozart's music: now let us turn to one of his sonatas and examine it with a view to its style, structure, and esthetic purpose.

Our subject is Mozart's Pianoforte Sonata in B flat, No. \*10 in Schirmer's Edition. It is in three movements, viz:

1. **\*\*Allegro.**
2. *Andante cantabile.*
3. *Allegretto grazioso.*

The first movement may be divided into the following sections—pursuing the plan of analysis employed in the article on Haydn.

A	B	A
Theme I *(1-23)	Development Section	Theme I (94-119)
Theme II (24-39)	or	Theme II (120-135)
Closing part (Coda)	"Free Fantasia"	Closing part (Coda)
(40-64)	(65-94)	(136-166)

The first theme, after being given out in complete form (1-11), is repeated with slight changes. This repetition is due to the desire to give especial prominence here at the outset to the chief idea of the movement. The statement of theme I ends (23) in a related key in which the second theme now begins. This theme is not an entirely distinct idea, as will be perceived by comparing (26) with (6), the rhythm being the same in each case. The beginning of the closing part (40) is also reminiscent of theme I, (40) being rhythmically derived from (8). A brief new figure enters in the right hand further on in the Coda (51), and the first part comes to a close at the double-bar. The "Free Fantasia" now follows; no analysis is made here as this portion of the sonata serves for questions at the close of this article.

Let us note before turning to the next movement, how clear and transparent the writing for the piano has been thus far in this sonata. No massive chords occur, no harsh dissonances, no surprises, no

perplexities. The opening measures serve as a type of the whole: the accompaniment is conventional, consisting of only the notes necessary to make a harmonious background for the tune. The movement is not so gay as the first movement of the Haydn Sonata, although there is no attempt here at anything grave or over serious.

The Andante to this characteristic Sonata is more nearly in rhymed form, corresponding to regular poetic metre, than is the first movement. Many of the phrases answer each other like lines of a poem. The first eight measures, for example, constitute what would be a verse in poetry, each line being two measures long. The same exact balance may be noticed between (14-15) and (16-17), and between (21-25) and (25-29). (In each of the above examples the phrases end in the middle of the measure).

\*This sonata may be bought for 30 cents net, and a volume of the 19 principal sonatas for \$1.00 net in the Schirmer edition.

\*\*Allegro, fast: Andante, slowly: Cantabile, in singing style: Allegretto, the ending *etto* modifies the Allegro: Grazioso, gracefully. These terms are often used to designate movements, as—"the Allegro to Mozart's Pianoforte Sonata in B flat."

\*Numbers in parentheses always refer to the measures of the music, which should be numbered consecutively to correspond.

In the middle section of this Sonata several quite modern passages occur; the whole of the first part (32-43) has frequent dissonances which must have been considered quite advanced at the time they were written. All the music between (32) and (50) should be carefully studied with a view to its derivation from



MOZART AND HIS SISTER

preceding material. The first phrase, for example, copies the rhythm of (1); the three notes in the right hand at (33), in the bass at (35) and in the following measures in both hands, are derived from the phrase at the end of (18). At the return of Theme I (51) it should be noted that the original theme is varied by embellishments. The last part of the movement is a repetition, save in key, of the corresponding section in the first part.

The last movement, Allegretto Grazioso, is in a different form from the others; it serves for a question at the close of this article.

In the Sonata, then, we have a further

use of the principles discussed in the article on Haydn. Here is a long piece of music whose chief material is melody, whose style is free, and whose sense, as a whole, depends on a logical use of themes, or tunes, and this logic consists in keeping before the listener the chief subject matter. There are minor topics touched on, but, in the main, the impression one gets is that of unity and variety, and, if the student will study the whole work carefully, he will find that it is coherent and logical throughout. It should be noted, in addition, however, that there is no connection between the different movements although they keep close to a given tonality (key).

In any estimate of Mozart's whole contribution to the art of music the chief place must be given to what we must call—for the lack of a better word—his inspiration. No one, save Schubert, approaches him in the quality of spontaneous expression. Genius has been called the capacity for taking pains; in other words, a large part of any great man's success is usually due to persistent hard work. This is true to a greater or less extent of all creative minds, but Mozart and Schubert are conspicuous exceptions. Not only were many of their great works composed so rapidly that we are forced to use the word "inspiration" to describe the process, but the works themselves have a bloom and fragrance as of nature itself. In Mozart's case there was, indeed, a thorough training behind it all, but no amount of study could ever have produced the ineffable, mysterious charm which surrounds his music. And the fact that it is limited by the means of expression then possible does not in the least make it unavailing today. If it did we should have to discard many of the great men of the past—Chaucer, Botticelli, Bach, and all others who wrought so nobly in their own time and in their own way, speaking a language long since gone out of current use.

We have already spoken of the lyric

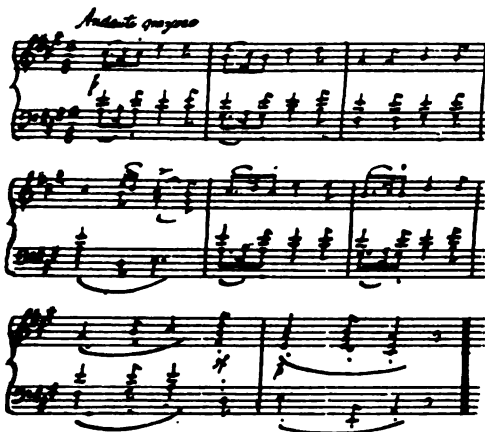
quality in Mozart's music, and how natural a thing it was that, in that period both music and poetry should have taken the form they did. Neither of these two arts had at that time begun to grope in the misty land of modern speculation. Each aimed at clarity of expression, repose and, above all, at beauty. A familiar quotation from the English poet Gray (1716-1771) will illustrate this.

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,  
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,  
The ploughman homeward plods his weary  
way

And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

This beautiful verse is animated by the ideals already referred to. It does not speculate, nor grope; its aim is beauty. The lilt of it—its flow, its music—is its chief charm.

A familiar example from Mozart will serve as a parallel:



Sweet and low, sweet and low,  
Wind of the western sea,  
Low, low, breathe and blow,  
Wind of the western sea!

The above theme from Mozart's Piano-forte Sonata in A (No. 9 in the Schirmer edition) is cast in a similar mould, and under it are placed four lines from Tennyson's "The Princess" which, by the repetition of the first phrase, and of the second line, closely approaches the phraseology of Mozart's melody. Both the melody and the verse are highly unified by these repetitions: the little phrase with which the tune begins is given four times

in the course of the eight measures. This process, it should be observed, is much more common in music owing to the greater difficulty of remembering musical phrases.

A further understanding of this characteristic in the music and poetry of the eighteenth century may be obtained by a glance at the types they developed into.

The following excerpt is from Schumann's second "Fantasiestücke," op. 3; it is a kind of romantic variant of the idea Mozart used in his Sonata some seventy years before, and the similarity in the idea enables us to observe clearly what changes took place in the art of expression:



On comparing this theme with the Mozart melody one is at once struck by the greater freedom from the strict versified form of the earlier example. The Schumann theme lacks that perfect balance so common in Mozart: in addition there is considerable contrast in the harmonies employed, Schumann's being more free and more dissonant. This theme is selected because of its similarity to that of Mozart; in a later article we shall quote more characteristic passages from Schumann's works to show how widely divergent are the two points of view.

To complete the \*comparison a verse

\*The student is recommended to read in this connection and for comparison of music and poetry Hadow's "Studies in Modern Music" second series, chapter II, and Chesterton's "Robert Browning," chapter VI.

from Browning's "Old Pictures in Florence" is here given:

On which I conclude that the early painters,  
To cries of "Greek art and what more wish  
you?"—

Replied, "To become now self-acquainters,  
"And paint man man, whatever the issue!  
"Make new hopes shine through the flesh they  
fray,

"New fears aggrandize the rags and tatters:  
"To bring the invisible full into play!

"Let the visible go to the dogs—what  
matters?"

This not only illustrates the great difference between the style of the eighteenth century and that of the nineteenth, but it contains the philosophy of the modern point of view in which the scientific spirit of investigation plays so important a part. Here, as in much modern music, euphony is relegated to the background and the inner meaning of things is sought.

In conclusion let us urge upon the reader the necessity of hearing at least one of Mozart's great Symphonies. The celebrated "Jupiter" Symphony, or the beautiful one in G minor may be purchased \*cheaply arranged for piano, four hands; and students, by means of the diagram in the article on "Haydn" may ar-

\*The G minor Symphony for fifty cents net; the "Jupiter" for fifty cents net, and the volume (paper covers) containing both for \$1.25 net. See note page 344 preceding.

rive at an understanding of their formal structure, and receive, from contact with them, great stimulation.

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What marked differences do you find between the first movement of the Sonata of Haydn (see the November CHAUTAUQUAN) and the first movement of the Mozart Sonata discussed herein? 2. What defect is there in the general plan of "Sonata Form" as exemplified in this first movement? 3. What is the form of the last movement of the Mozart Sonata? 4. What use of foregoing material do you find in the middle section of the slow movement? (State in detail using measure numbers.) 5. What constitutes the difference in style between the passage from Mozart's Sonata in A, and that from Schumann's 'Fantasiestücke'? (Point out these differences in detail.) 6. What relation do you find between the material in the "Free Fantasia" of the first movement and that in the first section? (State in detail.)

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*End of January Required Reading for Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, Pages 317 to 350.*



# Civic Lessons From Europe

## Cooperative Industries

By Mary Rankin Cranston

Librarian of the American Institute of Social Service.

**C**OMMERCIALLY speaking, a coöperative business is pure profit sharing. Historically, it is an enterprise conducted by people of the middle classes, originating in England, as emancipation from conditions of life so hard as not to be borne any longer. Potentially, it contains the possibilities of a great workingman's trust.

It is, however, more than these. Coöperation is, above all, a principle, a rule for right living. It is for many coöperators the only form of practical Christianity which they know. Unselfishness is the cardinal idea of its gospel. The truth that in unity lies strength, that none may live for himself alone, that by his efforts to raise the standard of life for the community the individual receives his truest benefit, are the greatest lessons coöperation teaches its adherents. Of course, there are those to whom the dividend is the great thing. While dividends are not to be despised they are far from being the ideal of the leaders of this movement who have for their object the forming of human character as well as the accumulation of dollars and cents.

The important thing about this type of business is that it brings to the surface the very best work of which a man is capable; if a round peg gets into a square hole it is soon found out, a transfer is made and instead of forever doing badly the work for which he is unfitted, becoming a human failure, a man finds his level,

and so has as good a working chance as any other man. After all, opportunity is what everybody wants. Given that, success is certain if one is worth his salt.

Today there are three classes of organizations, separate and distinct in ideals and management but identical in object, which is to improve the economic or financial condition, or both. These three organizations are the capitalistic trusts, the trade unions and the coöperative industries.

Everybody knows what the trust is—a combination of capital, managed by the few for the benefit of the few, having for its object the creation of a monopoly.

Equally familiar are we with the trade union, that natural growth of industrial conditions whereby the workingman has gained for himself shorter hours, more pay and better conditions of labor.

In the United States the coöperative principle is not so well understood as it is abroad, especially in England. The history of British coöperation is a story of privation, self-denial, opposition which frequently took the form of boycotts, and infinite patience and perseverance.

In the first quarter of the nineteenth century industrial and social conditions fostered the growth of coöperation. Many forms were tried and failed through the collapse of the English Union Shop movement about the year 1834, only four societies remaining to show that the movement ever had an existence.

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This is the fourth of a series of articles on "Civic Lessons from Europe." A partial list is as follows:

Street Decoration, by Milo Roy Maltbie (September).

La Maison du Peuple, a Belgian Coöperative Business, by Mary Rankin Cranston (October).

Forestry in Germany, by Raphael G. Zon (November).

Coöperative Industries, by Mary Rankin Cranston (December).

Public Playgrounds, by H. S. Curtis (January).

Industrial Communities, by Patrick Geddes.



For some time the idea lay dormant and it was not until ten years later that the twenty-eight poor weavers of Rochdale took down the shutters from their tiny shop which has become historic. This little shop in Toad Lane was called the Rochdale Equitable Pioneer's Society and has literally been the pioneer of the most successful industries conducted on the coöperative plan. Being founded on sound business principles the society has succeeded ever since its organization, although slowly at first.

In 1844, these twenty-eight weavers procured the capital to start with by subscribing 3 pence (6 cents) a week into a common fund until £28 (\$140) was paid in. With this they bought sugar and flour at wholesale and sold it to themselves at retail at a saving of the middleman's expense.

The venture made no profit the first year. In its second year the membership had grown to seventy-four, with a capital of £181 (\$905) and made £22 (\$110) profit. In 1902, it had a membership of 13,000, a business of £292,000 (\$1,460,000) and profits of £46,000 (\$230,000).



EARLY MEETING PLACE OF ROCHDALE PIONEERS, ROCHDALE, ENGLAND  
Showing Socialists' Institute on the left and Weavers' Arms on the right.

From the time the Rochdale Pioneers opened their shop until the present day, the coöperative movement has had a gradual, healthy growth, substantial and not in the least sky-rockety, naturally attaining its best heights in England.

Fifteen hundred delegates from 1,701 societies attended the recent British congress in Stratford, representing 2,116,127 registered members. The business controlled by these 1,701 societies reached, in 1903, a total of \$445,000,000 with net profits of \$46,000,000, equaling three and one-half times the percentage of net profits ordinarily made upon the entire commerce of the country.

An important step forward was made when the congress passed a resolution to establish a coöperative land owning society. Land is to be bought and leased to small holders who will be expected to live wholly by labor on their farms.

Of the two million and more coöperators represented at the congress only about two per cent of them pay the tax on an income of over £150 (750), so the \$46,000,000 profits went into the pockets of humble folk.

Great executive ability is required to operate such extensive enterprises. Co-operators are convinced that business ability is by no means so rare as it is popularly believed to be; that it is lack of opportunity which prevents men from showing what they can do rather than incapacity to achieve. They have certainly proven that ability for the management of an enormous business lies in the ranks of the middle class workers.

"And how is it that the chance of scooping such a good thing does not prove an irresistible temptation to those in control of the business?" was the natural question asked the secretary of the Co-operative Union at Manchester. "Ah," was the reply, "we carry on a systematic educational campaign to show our members and the world at large that a man gets more out of life in the long run when he works in harmony with his fellow men, that mutuality pays better than competition and overreaching."

In every association a certain amount from the profits, usually two per cent, is put aside for educational work. The fund pays for lectures upon all of the



COOPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETY, MANCHESTER, ENGLAND  
Drapery, woolen cloth and ready made warehouse.

various phases of coöperation as well as for literature which is widely distributed.

Women are said to be excellent missionaries in the coöperative cause. They belong to the societies on an equal basis with the men; husbands and wives attend the business meetings together, where the vote of the wife is worth just as much as that of her husband.

England is fairly honey-combed with these societies which form the business centers of the county towns. In their stores the two million and more coöperators purchase all supplies for their families. In this way the stores reach more than seven millions of the English people.

There are three kinds of coöperation: distribution, production and banking.

Distribution or consumption, buying and selling, is usually the plan first adopted, because liabilities are less and results are more quickly seen. This form is very popular and successful.

Production, or manufacturing, was the first kind attempted on a large scale. It is the best form but has been not always successful.

Credit, or coöperative banking, is the most successful form, but it is by many considered not true coöperation, as it is nearest to ordinary business methods and does not so clearly develop the coöperative idea of loyalty to a principle.

A few men of moderate means, or next to no means at all, may start a coöperative business by paying equal amounts into a common fund, buying at wholesale and selling to themselves, and to any others who wish to buy, at retail, with periodical distribution of the profits.

It is easy to see how an organization of this character will antagonize small tradesmen. This is, however, a minor matter, since the great department stores will slowly but surely put them out of business, and also because it is this very class which may be most benefited by the coöperative movement. The solution would be for the small tradesmen to become coöperators. Today, there are in the United States thousands of retailers struggling along to make both ends meet through a maze of bad debts, competition and other causes which eat up all the profits or will eliminate them altogether.

It is human nature to buy where lowest prices prevail. A coöperative business must overcome this difficulty by selling absolutely pure goods and also by its educational work. The educational work



COOPERATIVE PRINTING SOCIETY, MANCHESTER, ENGLAND

will open the eyes of members to the fact that in actual dollars and cents it is cheaper to buy from their own stores, since the coöperative dividend is larger than the few cents saved on so called "bargains"; moreover, they receive goods which are precisely what they are represented to be.

When it is borne in mind that the enormous dividends paid by the British societies represent the rebate upon purchases which would in any event have been made for the daily necessities of life with none other than the usual outlay of money, it is not difficult to realize the value of the coöperative principle nor the enthusiasm of its followers.

The success of the British stores has caused the coöperative idea to spread to other localities. Today there is scarcely a country in Europe without such societies.

Coöperative statistics are elastic rather than satisfactory; societies are negligent about answering statistical questions, new

associations are constantly being formed, others sometimes discontinue business. In the brief account of coöperation in continental Europe, which follows, allowance must be made for reliance upon incomplete data.

Production is the type of coöperation distinctively characteristic of France. It was the form first adopted and still continues to hold the interest of a large number of men of high character.

There are about 300 productive societies in France, more than are to be found in any other country. Four of these were organized during the years 1848 to 1850, the storm and stress period of coöperation. Assistance given by the state as well as the government of Paris has been a great factor in their success. Large contracts worth millions of francs were placed with the coöperators during the Exposition of 1900.

While production is on a firmer basis, coöperative distribution has, during recent years, advanced more rapidly, especially bakeries, which represent one-third of the number of such societies in France today.

There are now 2,000 French distributive societies, more than in England, but neither the volume nor extent of business



EMMENTHAL CHEESE, SWISS COOPERATIVE DAIRY

transacted is so great because the societies suffer from lack of cohesion, many being totally ignorant of the existence of others.

Three thousand agricultural societies, or syndicates, as they are called, have 2,500 dairies which render good service to French farmers, but they are, nevertheless, outstripped by those of Denmark and Switzerland.

About forty per cent of Denmark's 2,500,000 inhabitants are farmers—"small farmers." Singly they worked hard and accomplished nothing. Through coöperative combination they have acquired independence and an enviable reputation. Today there are more than 1,056 dairies with 140,000 members. Butter, alone, to the amount of 1,316,800 cwt. a year sold for £7,352,000 (\$36,760,000). There is also an Egg Export Society with 22,000 members, selling one-sixth of all the eggs sent out of the country and transacting a business of £110,000 (\$550,000) a year. Bacon-curing and fisheries are included in this enterprising little country's coöperative system.

Cheese and butter making are the chief Swiss industries. Twenty miles from Lucerne and any railway, right in the heart of the beautiful country, there is a cheese factory owned by twenty-six farmers.

They clubbed together, put up a substantial buiding, hired a manager with a sufficient number of helpers and began to make Ementhal cheese on the coöperative plan. This was several years ago and they have prospered from the very beginning. The farmers send milk to the manager who is responsible for the cheese making. When it is ready for the market the cheese is sold in Lucerne to a wholesale firm which has no connection with the coöperators beyond finding a market for their product.

The dairy is exquisitely clean, the well-filled shelves in the cellar testifying to the skill of the manager. The rich, fresh milk, cream and tempting cheeses are sufficient to give one an appetite on the spot.

Not a slice of cheese, nor a glass of milk may be bought for any price, for "how can we tell whose milk it is since it must be all poured together," as the manager said to one hungry woman who had taken the twenty mile drive in order to see the dairy. Verily the sturdy Swiss are a distressingly honest people. In the canton of Basle, four societies supply electric



COOPERATIVE DAIRY, NEUDORF, SWITZERLAND

light and power. This unusual form of coöperation has given excellent service and has met with great favor from the communal authorities.

The 311 Belgian societies in 1894 had, in seven years grown to 1,706, taking a political and socialistic character. There are five large societies, \*La Maison du Peuple of Brussels, Vooruit of Ghent, Le Progrès of Jolimont, La Concorde of Roux, La Populaire of Liège, the others being pretty evenly scattered through the smaller towns and rural districts. The large societies are the centers of the social and business life of their members, affording them recreation, instruction and even pecuniary aid when necessary. Money has frequently been voted for the assistance of strikers and those out of employment.

\*See article in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for October, 1904.

Like everything else in Russia coöperation is directly under the official eye. All countries have legislation for business but Russian regulations are more stringent than others. Distribution is the popular form there. The largest society, composed of officers of the Imperial Guard at St. Petersburg, has 5,469 members and 480 employés. The pernicious credit system in vogue in Russia even among co-operators has been the ruin of some of the stores. The Coöperative Union, formed in 1898, acts as a broker for the distributive societies and buys supplies every year at the famous fair of Nijni Novgorod. Climatic, social and political conditions in Russia, the sparsely settled rural communities, added to the lack of educa-

older societies. When the Finnish people saw that their political independence had been taken from them they determined to put forth every effort for economic and intellectual advancement. Here as nowhere else has coöperation had such general support from the very beginning. Small and great have banded themselves together for coöperative success, special lectures being given at the University and attended by hundreds. Students during their vacation spread the coöperative gospel through the length and breadth of the land. The Finnish *Coöperative Review* has a circulation of 28,000, greater than that of any other periodical in the country, not even excepting newspapers. Two poets of national reputation have written poems concerned with the ideals of the movement which have been set to music and are sung in all parts of Finland.

Under Italy's blue skies even humdrum business takes on an aspect of beauty. Coöperative groceries, pharmacies and wine depots are, in Rome, housed in old buildings which have weathered the country's political and financial vicissitudes. In these architecturally beautiful and historically interesting old places the seeker after coöperative information finds much that is fascinating as well as instructive. The old quotation "How the lowly have risen and the mighty have gone down" ever recurs to the mind.

Italian army and navy officers have a coöperative society with large factories making uniforms, flags, saddles, boots and in fact all articles needed in the service.

Although Rome has various coöperative industries, Milan is, nevertheless, the real center of Italian coöperation, the Co-operative Union having its headquarters there and doing much to encourage the formation of such societies throughout Italy.

Aside from credit societies (banking), coöperation is practically at a standstill in Germany. There are many reasons, peculiar to the country, for this state



COOPERATIVE DEPARTMENT STORE, MILAN,  
ITALY

tion among the middle and peasant classes, discourage combination of every kind. Coöperation, therefore, advances very slowly.

Finland is the latest convert to coöperation and has adopted it with almost religious fervor and bids fair to rival the growth in other countries having much



COOPERATIVE RESTAURANT, MILAN, ITALY

of affairs. Conditions are about the same in Austria, Hungary and Servia. The Raiffeisen banks, however, do a flourishing business in these countries. In the Netherlands there are many distributive stores and bakeries. Although Spain has few coöperative societies those which do exist are quite successful and have a promising future.

In this great movement which is gradually permeating the middle classes of the entire world, America, until a few years ago, took so slight a part that she may be said to have almost ignored it. There have been many reasons for this indifference. Coöperation implies permanence of residence for coöperators. In our country a workingman is more likely to change his place of abode than to remain stationary. With present methods this has been a hindrance to coöperation, and in consequence, the notion has gained credence that coöperation is, with us, impracticable. But if societies were established all through the country, as in England, some system of transfers might be arranged which would neither injure the

business nor tie down the coöperator if he found it desirable to make a change.

Then, too, Americans are a nervous people, too restless to wait for large dividends and not content with small ones. Perhaps, in a nutshell, the difficulty has lain in a general unpreparedness for the coöperative idea. When we are ready for it—and there are certain indications that the time is rapidly arriving—all obstacles will be surmounted and we will have societies even more prosperous than those across the water. It may be that hard times and industrial strife will be the means of showing to Americans the value of the coöperative principle.

About twenty years ago in different parts of the United States such societies were actually formed. For a time fortune seemed to smile upon them, but as time passed, one by one they failed, leaving only a handful to keep the principle alive.

Within the past few years, however, coöperation has taken on new life with us—particularly in the western states, among farmers and fruit growers. One of the oldest and best known of these

is the Farmers' Society of Rockwell, Iowa, which has done a business of \$5,000,000 during the last five years. California has forty-five coöperative societies on the Rochdale plan, composed of farmers and fruit growers. From Maine to California, scattered through far distant states and localities, societies are rapidly springing up; it is safe to predict that the next ten years will see a wonderful coöperative development from one end of the country to the other. It is significant that the labor element is turning its attention in this direction. Colorado unionists are forming coöperative societies as well as are some of the Nebraska unions.

If our 1,300,000 trade unionists do adopt the coöperative idea in the general establishment of their own factories, they will practically form a workingman's trust without many of the trust's objectionable features. For a coöperative business presents the spectacle of labor hiring capital for the benefit of both. If this ever happens as a general policy here it is the belief of many that the day of strikes will be at an end, for the great labor class will be working for itself, will be its own employer, and knowing the anxieties which beset great business ventures, the restraining power of its own votes will teach that most difficult of all lessons—self control.

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# How the American Boy Is Educated

## Schooling in Country and in City

By Walter L. Hervey

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ANY one who gave even a cursory glance at the education exhibits at the St. Louis Exposition must have been struck by their entire lack of uniformity. Each unit of the exhibit, whether representing a state, city, town or district, seemed to be a law unto itself. There was great variety in plan, in method, and in standards of excellence. Features there were of individual exhibits that were not elsewhere duplicated. Everywhere there was evidence of the truth of these words of President Butler which stand at the beginning of the notable collection of monographs prepared for the United States exhibit at the Paris Exposition of 1900:

Spontaneity is the keynote of education in the United States. Its varied form, its uneven progress, its lack of symmetry, its practical effectiveness are all due to the fact that it has sprung, unbidden and unforced, from the needs and aspirations of the people. Local preference and individual initiative have been ruling forces. What men have wished for that they have done. They have not waited for state assistance or state control. As a result, there is, in the European sense, no American system of education.

There is, indeed, no American system of education. But there are many systems of education. And there is observable throughout the country a tendency towards educational systematizing. It is natural and proper that it should be so. Wherever children must be dealt with in large numbers; wherever the standards

in remote districts are to be leveled up to those of the larger centers; wherever reforms are to be introduced on a large scale; wherever public money is to be expended over a wide territory, there system is essential. Decentralized methods will surely fail. Some degree of centralization is necessary everywhere. The degree of centralization which is attained in any given community varies and depends largely upon the traditions of that community. Some states are very jealous of local prerogatives. Their state superintendents have slight authority and exiguous compensation. In other states, there is a strong state organization. In the State of New York where there exists an organization more complete and elaborate than that of any other state, the State Commissioner of Education is vested with such enormous powers that he is able to make himself and his office felt in every city, town, and even country school district in the state. He apportions funds, has unlimited authority over the examination and certification of teachers, has power to condemn school houses, and require new ones to be built. He is, broadly speaking, the final court of appeals in school matters, and his decision cannot be "called in question in any court or in any other place." There is hardly a school-boy in the state of New York who has not at some time been vividly conscious of the "Board of Regents" and the State Commissioner of Education.

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This is the fourth of a series of nine articles on "How the American Boy Is Educated." In this series Mr. Hervey will undertake to give a picture of the various and contrasting conditions under which the American boy is being built into a man through education. The following articles have already appeared: Education and the American Boy, September; Home Education, October; Bodily Basis: Physician and Teacher, November.



The tendency to centralization has grown apace with the growth of cities and suburbs. A hundred years ago when twenty-nine out of thirty of the population lived in rural districts, and even sixty years ago when one in twelve lived in the city, decentralization was the rule. Today it is estimated by the United States Commissioner of Education that one-half of the entire population of the United States lives in cities or in suburbs. According to the same authority the school population of the country is equally divided between city and country. Of the sixteen millions of children now attending school in the United States, eight millions are under what may be called the old régime of the country school, and eight millions are under the new régime, which is steadily supplanting the old. It will be a long while, however, before the small school, remote from a great center of population, will wholly disappear in this country. And so from the small school there is quite as much to be learned regarding how the American boy is educated, as from the great school. What, then, are the respective advantages and disadvantages of the centralized system of which the city school is a type, and of the decentralized system of which the historic district school is an example?

I used to hear it said when I was a boy, in the middle west, that the two most independent persons in the world were the road supervisor and the teacher in a district school. Of the district school teacher in the state of Ohio twenty years ago, this statement was certainly true. There were but two superior "powers" with whom he had to reckon: The county examining board from which he received his license to teach, and the district school committee, from which he received his appointment. If there were qualifications, beyond a knowledge of the common school branches and of the common sense of school discipline, he was not made conscious of their existence. Supervision, there was none; course of study, none;

suggestive criticism, none. The teacher was allowed to do pretty much as he pleased. He used his own methods, held examinations or not, as he pleased, and was accountable only as any one is accountable who is hired for a four months' term and may fail of reappointment. There were, moreover, few spurs to professional excellence and no incitements to make teaching anything but a stepping-stone to occupations which, from any point of view, were certainly to be regarded as higher than teaching.

This condition, which was prevalent over the greater part of the United States twenty years ago, has by no means disappeared. Teachers are, as a rule, better trained; the school year is lengthened: the tenure of office is more secure; the professional spirit runs higher. But for at least one-half of American schools it is emphatically true, that as the teacher is, so is the school,—for there is no one but the teacher in charge of the school. In such schools the teacher is thrown on his own responsibility and works out his own salvation with the minimum of interference and of help from the outside.

Contrast with this atomistic condition, the highly developed organism found to-day in the large schools of great cities. The qualifications of teachers are fixed by state law, modified, though never diminished, by local enactments. Each teacher is required to be professionally trained, and to pass examinations both in scholarship and pedagogy. He is subject to the supervision of the superintendent of schools, of the principal of the school in which he teaches, of the respective supervisors of manual training, music, physical training and sewing. The reports of each of these officials are carefully preserved; they constitute the teacher's record, and on the question of record hangs promotion, salary and tenure. Here are some of the heads under which the observations of supervising officers fall:

Ability to comprehend instructions.  
Scholarship in special subjects.

Skill in statement.  
 Skill in questioning.  
 Use of apperception.  
 Use of correlation.  
 Thoroughness in developing subject.  
 Use of objective illustration.  
 Thoroughness of drill.  
 Self control and manners.  
 Use of voice.  
 Control of class.

Each of these categories serves for stimulus and suggestion as well as for criticism. It may be doubted, however, even with such a wealth of proffered help, if the work of teaching under such conditions is ideal. If the teacher of the country school could have the stimulus, *esprit de corps*, and the responsibility of the city teacher, together with his own freedom and initiative, the conditions would be more nearly ideal.

From the viewpoint of organization the main difference between a family and a school lies in the fact that the number of children in the school is larger than that in the family, and further that the school brings together children from different families. There is valuable education to be derived both from numbers and from variety. Where two or three are gathered together in a school it is difficult to generate what is known as the school spirit. In a school of five hundred or a thousand or two thousand members, whose smallest unit is a class of thirty or forty, there is offered the opportunity of developing the social spirit in all of its forms,—class feeling, school spirit, and the sense of community life. One cannot live in such a school without being daily impressed by the fact that we are members one of another; that no one liveth unto himself; that the success or the failure of the individual unit is the success or failure of the social group, the class, the team, or the school. The great assembly in a large school is always impressive to a visitor. There is something that always moves me deeply to look into the faces of a thousand young children, or youths. The sense of the potentialities bound up in that

hall full of growing and maturing young people,—future mothers, fathers, citizens,—is deeply affecting. But that something of which an adult observer is clearly conscious has its influence upon the children themselves. They participate in the exercises, class by class; individuals from their number stand up before the entire assembly and make their contributions. They join in the soul-stirring salute to the flag, and in singing, now for softness and sweetness, and now for volume. It is a wonderful thing to hear a thousand children sing!

The other day I attended a children's peace congress; it was held in a hall seating seven or eight hundred, and the hall was filled. The audience was composed of delegates from the schools of the city, two delegates from each. I was not aware of this fact when I entered the hall. It was apparent, however, that these children did not come from any one school. Something of the *representative* character of the audience was dimly felt by me before I knew the fact. Those children were not there as individuals. The honor of their respective schools was in their keeping. That they were expected to report to their schools what they saw and heard at the meeting was apparent in their attention and their attitude.

In the ordinary district school where five or six or perhaps a dozen or twenty families are represented, there are found children of all ages reciting to the same teacher in the same room. The time allotted to each division must be short. The teacher is trying to teach everything to everybody, and is in danger of teaching nothing to anybody. If it be true that a boy learns not only from his teacher and his books, but also from his fellow-pupils, then the small class of three or four is as bad as the unwieldy class of sixty or seventy. "It is pretty hard for my boy to keep up interest in school," said a farmer, "he is the only one in the class." Where the class is too small there are too few points of view. There is too little chance

to criticize and be criticized by a jury of one's peers. Where the class is too large the child on the back seat cannot hear what the child on the front seat has said. In a properly graded school where the classes are neither too large nor too small, the recitation period offers a fine chance for the individual pupil to clarify his ideas, express himself cogently, sharpen his wits and learn to conduct himself as he will have to do as a full grown member of society out in the world. According to the careful estimate of the United States Commissioner of Education, one-half of the entire number of school children in the United States lack the advantages of a skilfully conducted recitation.

There is another aspect of this question of numbers which has been illuminatingly treated by Dr. Harris in the following paragraph:

American city schools are often condemned for their mechanism in discipline, or in method of organization and government. In the rural school with twenty-five pupils, more or less, it makes little difference whether pupils come into the school room and go out in military order, so far as the work of the school is concerned. But in the graded school with three hundred to eight hundred pupils order and discipline are necessary down to the last particular, for the safety of the pupil as well as the accomplishment of the ends for which the school exists. There must be regularity and punctuality, silence and conformity to order, in coming and going. The whole school seems to move like a machine. In the ungraded school a delightful individuality prevails, the pupil helping himself to knowledge by the use of books, and coming and going pretty much as he pleases, with no subordination to rigid discipline, except perhaps when standing in class for recitation.

Regularity, punctuality, silence, and conformity to order,—military drill,—seem at first to be so much waste of energy,—necessary it is true, for the large school, but to be subtracted from the amount of force available for study and thought. But the moment the question of moral training comes to be investigated, the superiority of the education given in the large school is manifest. The pupil is taught to be regular and punctual in his

attendance on school and in all his movements, not for the sake of the school alone, but for all his relations to his fellow-men. Social combination is made possible by these semi-mechanical virtues. The pupil learns to hold back his animal impulse to chatter or whisper and by so much self-restraint he begins to form a good habit for life. He learns to respect the serious business of others. In moving to and fro by a sort of military concert and precision he acquires the impulse to behave in an orderly manner, to stay in his own place and not get in the way of others. Hence he prepares for concerted action,—another important lesson in citizenship. The rural school does not fit its pupils for an age of productive industry and emancipation from drudgery by means of machinery. But the city school performs this so well that it reminds some people unpleasantly of a machine.

In the matter of equipment it would, at first sight, seem that the well conducted city school has the advantage. Illustrative material abounds. The abundance of collateral reading provided is in sharp contrast to the poverty of many rural schools. The walls are adorned with the most beautiful photographic reproductions obtainable; there are statues and casts. There is wood for manual training, raffia for weaving, strings and cords of all descriptions for knot tying, fabrics for sewing, raw materials in all stages of production for geography work; models, skeletons, specimens for biology and physiology, laboratories fully equipped for individual experimentation in physics and chemistry, and many other things which I cannot here mention. But any one who has taught in a school whose children live on treeless streets and are miles away from woods and fields, will be inclined to doubt whether in these respects the country school has not the best of the bargain. Not long ago in a school of two thousand children on the lower east side of the City of New York one of the teachers brought a hen and chickens to school for the benefit of her own class, none of whom had ever seen either a live fowl or a brood of chicks. With the

consent of the principal the hen and her family were put in a barrel in the small garden in the rear of the school. It was arranged to have the entire school of two thousand children visit the back yard in squads of fifty each day for a week, each squad spending one-half hour in observation. It was found that not only had the children, with few exceptions, never seen a hen and chickens, but that many of the teachers had never seen them either. So ignorant were both teachers and children as to the proper treatment of the creatures they were observing, that the principal found it necessary to assign some one to supervise the observations in order that the chicks might not be poked to death. What that experience meant to the children may be judged from the following selections from the piles of compositions which were written to describe what they saw:

DEAR MISS \_\_\_\_\_,

Thank you for bringing Mrs. Hen and her babies to visit us. We wish you had invited Mr. Rooster. Then we could have entertained a whole family of our feathered friends.

Harry Shapiro brought our visitors a big bag of worms from the park. It was fun to watch the little chicks. Two of them are fighters. One of our boys said, if a boy killed Mrs. Hen he would be as bad as the boy who killed a mother bird. We read this story in our reader.

Your grateful pupil,  
LOUIS KATZ.  
(Third year of school.)

#### OUR VISIT TO THE GARDEN

Down in the yard there is a hen and five young ones. They were afraid of the fire engine so they ran under their mother's breast. Two were fighters about a worm. Two are spotted with black and white and the rest are all white.

DAVID WOLF.  
(Fourth year of school.)

These are selections from other papers by children of various ages:

They have two feet and four toes. The feathers of the little chicks are soft which look like velvet while the hen's feathers are stiff which shine like silk or

satin. The sound they make seems to us as if a canary bird is singing.

Our class presented them with four little fishes. Oh, How I would like you to see how each one was greedy to have a fish! I think it was a perfect pleasure to watch them.

(Seventh year of school.)

Their flossy velvety down seems as though the slightest wind would blow it up. Their mother's feathers look like the best quality satin, but her feet are a great, great, many times stronger than those of her children.

One would think that they ought to be very happy because they have their food in front of them but I think they would enjoy it better if they could run about scraping the ground up with their little feet to find their prey.

(Eighth year of school.)

This incident of the hen and chicks helps us to see a fundamental difference between city and country schools. To the city school the hen and her family were a curiosity, as much so as an ostrich or an auk would have been to country children. But the very rarity of the experience enabled them to gaze with wonder undiminished by the familiarity that breeds contempt. This is often the case in city schools. It was a child in a city school who said, "The most wonderful thing in our (school) garden is the pansies; the more you pick them the more there are to pick." Another city child remarked in answer to the teacher's question, "What surprised me most was that the radishes came up in three days but the potatoes took three weeks." The compositions which have been quoted (save in their reference to "best quality satin," etc.) are as fresh as if they had been written by Cain and Abel about the first parents of the chicken race. On the other hand, the creatures were not shown in their natural environment; there was no "father hen"; it was like seeing babies in an orphan asylum. Where country things are brought into town for purposes of study some loss is inevitable. And, besides, they are too often not brought in.

Consider now the wealth of life which lies at the very door of the country school. Trees, flowers and grasses are there, waiting to be watched, named and studied as to their times and seasons, their ways of doing the work they have to do in the world. There are the animals, both wild and tame, each one in its natural, or adopted, environment. Instead of the little window garden of the city child, or the slender share of the school farm, there is for every child as much land as he can properly attend to. The country boy need not be limited to the indoor laboratory. His farm is his laboratory. He plants corn on this soil, alfalfa on that. This plot he fertilizes thus, that plot he fertilizes so. Here he tries rotation, there he plows and plants the same crop in successive years. With each plot he keeps an accurate account; he graphically shows comparative yields; he observes, records and draws conclusions. Thus he becomes adjusted to his environment. The case I have described, though actual, is perhaps not yet typical. In one country school with which I have long been familiar, a big girl read, unrebuked, a graduating essay on "Degeneration," in which she cited as an example the farmer's boy who went to college and then degenerately went back to the farm.

A visitor to a district school early last spring noted on the blackboard such entries as these:

Wood Anemone, Lillie Walker.  
Scarlet Tanager, John Woodman.

"What are those?" inquired the visitor.

"Lily was the first to find the wood anemone this spring," replied the teacher, "and John was the first to see the scarlet tanager. I put on board the names of all first discoveries and first discoverers. Last spring the children brought in fifty-three species of flowers." In the neighborhood of cities every spring the woods are full of eager searchers for specimens for use in the schools. But it is said that certain wild flowers are disappearing from the region.

There are some country schools whose immediate environment is not rich in flora. It often happens that when the schools of a township are consolidated the union school is placed in the exact center of the township so as not to be more than three and one-half miles from the remotest dwelling. If this central point falls in the middle of a cornfield, there the schoolhouse must stand. But this gives an opportunity to make an ideal environment to order. Under the right leadership the cornfield is replaced by such a model school ground as that described by Adele Marie Shaw, (*World's Work*, Vol. VIII, p. 4884). The school building is surrounded by tennis courts, play grounds and experimental gardens, with walks and drives beautifully arranged. Above all there are (in the plan, and the plan is becoming a reality) nearly two hundred kinds of trees, shrubs and flowering plants effectively placed over the grounds. The placing of herbaceous plants is left to the teacher and the pupils with the following wise hints:

They should not be planted in formal beds, but should be scattered about in a seemingly careless manner. They should be found in the bays of shrubbery and in any nook that seems to need filling. . . . Whatever else is done in this planting, do not disfigure the landscape by digging up great spaces for formal flower beds. Let teachers and children have the privilege of noticing where the various perennials and annuals do well and of deciding among themselves where they will be most at home.

It has been remarked by those who know city boys and girls that as they grow up they are interested more and more in people and (unless they are educated up to it) less and less in nature. I know a group of city lads who are—or were at first—as much afraid in the solitude and silence of the country as country children would be in rattle and roar of the busiest corner on Broadway. The very croaking of the frogs inspires in them a nameless terror. The "horrid shade" of the woods is as dreadful to them as it

was to the ancients, to whom the powers of nature seemed mysterious and hostile. The dark is intolerable.

The interest of the town boy is primarily in people. The city is a better place to study (to quote from the New York City Syllabus on Ethics) "certain aspects of contemporary civilization which are of value for developing the social spirit: hospitals, societies for the prevention of cruelty to children and to animals, homes for orphans and for the aged and infirm, fresh air funds and similar agencies for social service, and deeds of heroism and self-sacrifice done by firemen and policemen."

The specialty, education-wise, of the town is to give contact with people. "Cities give collision," says Emerson. The city develops collectivism, the country, individualism. There are no more independent folk on the face of the earth than those dwellers in sparsely settled districts whom one learns to know and to respect in his summer outings in the Adirondacks and in New Hampshire. When they hire out to you it is half neighborly service—with a reservation of independence. They are hard to hold to an agreement. "I will if I feel like it," they say in effect, or in so many words. The city boy excels in adaptation, in the ability to work with others, and to get others to work with him. But the "collision" of the city which wears off his sharp corners, erodes his individuality, too. The city teacher, who is one of an army of fifteen thousand, is likely to think less about the individual than about the mass, less about her own plan and initiative, than about the "system" and what it requires of her and of the children.

There are few people in the world in a position of greater influence than the principal of a school. To the principal, both teachers and children look up for standards, for ideals, and for inspiration. It is the principal who gives tone to the school. His influence is felt in the remotest class room. A good principal, in

town or country, is held in loving and grateful remembrance by generations of school children, throughout their after lives. But where there is no principal, and no one to do the work of the principal, this influence is apt to be lacking, though many teachers happily combine the qualities of both principal and teacher. And on the other hand, where one principal has charge of thousands of children, and scores of teachers, as is sometimes the case, he is forced to devote to the system the time and strength which he might otherwise devote to persons. In this respect, as in others, ideal school conditions are to be sought neither in the very small school nor in the very large one; but in the school which is large enough to be graded, equipped, officered, and "socialized," but not so large that the care of the machinery obtrudes upon the care of souls.

The salvation of the country school lies in the consolidation of weak schools, in the efficiency of supervision, in the raising of standards to the level of the best anywhere to be found, in the adaptation to environment, in the effective use of natural advantages, in the curbing of excessive individualism, in socialization, and in the wise encouragement and guidance of that initiative and self-reliance which are characteristic of the country child.

The special problems of the city school are to profit by expert and stimulating supervision without being overwhelmed by it; to supplement impoverished home life; to supply raw materials, and to introduce primitive processes and activities; to utilize to the full its own rich environment of producing and distributing agencies, of organized activities, of museums, galleries, monuments, buildings, parks, and suburbs, of humanitarian movements, and of distinguished men and women; and to rescue the individual from being swallowed up in the great mass and make him feel that while he is a "member-whole," he is also an individual.

# Nature Study

## The Evergreens

By Anna Botsford Comstock

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**N**OT only are the evergreens among our most useful and valuable trees, but they are also most beautiful to look upon; in the winter they give us masses of color in the snowy landscape, and in the summer they add great richness and beauty to the hues of the woodlands. These evergreens are the aristocracy of the tree world. They represent the oldest families; for their ancient relatives appeared as early as the Silurian age; the evergreens were probably at their height in numbers of species and magnificence of development during the Triassic period. The pines were contemporaries of all those plants which were put to bed in the Devonian age, and which form our coal beds of today. The evergreens are a dignified remnant of an older tree race, which is being pushed to the wall by the up-starts, the oaks and maples and other deciduous trees. They still cling to the sandy shores where there is little to protect other trees and to the mountains and northern regions where other trees have not the strength to endure. Perhaps it is because they belong

essentially to another geologic age when the climate was far different from our climate of today, that they do not shed their leaves in winter like the adaptable deciduous trees.

There are so few of the evergreens in any locality that it is easy to learn all the species present, and in two lessons we will study those species most common in New York State—pines, tamaracks, spruces, cedars, firs and hemlocks.

There is one fundamental difference between the evergreens and other trees which has given rise to some hard botanical names. The ovule is a little body that by receiving the contents of pollen grains ripens into seed. Most plants like the apples, the maples and the sweet-peas have these ovules in a closed receptacle which is called the ovary, where they ripen protected. Such plants are called Angiosperms, which means "hidden seed." The cone-bearing plants or evergreens bear these ovules naked, simply lying between the scales of the cones, and they are called Gymnosperms, which means "naked seeds."

TABLE FOR DETERMINING OUR COMMON CONE BEARING TREES

A. Leaves drop off in winter.	Larch.
AA. Leaves remain on tree all winter.	
B. Leaves in bundles enclosed in a short sheath at bottom.	Pines.
BB. Leaves opposite or in whorls.	
C. Spray flat.	White cedar, arbor vitae.
CC. Spray four sided.	Red cedar.
BBB. Leaves alternate scattered along the stem.	
C. Leaves flat, winter buds covered with resin looking as if varnish had been brushed over them.	Fir.
CC. Winter buds not resinous.	
D. Leaves four sided.	The spruces.
DD. Leaves flat.	
F. Whitish beneath, short, flat, blunt.	Hemlock.
EE. Leaves lighter green underneath, short, pointed. A low shrub.	Yew or ground hemlock.

This is the third of a series of home Nature Study Lessons for the parents and teachers prepared by the Cornell Bureau of Nature Study. Lessons for children of the Chautauqua Junior Naturalist clubs will appear each month in *Boys and Girls*, Ithaca, New York. The following articles have already appeared in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: Leaves, October; Seed Distribution, November.



LARCH IN WINTER

## THE LARCH OR TAMARACK

The larches are most graceful and beautiful trees, forming slender pyramids often one hundred feet in height. Our native species in New York State loves the high, cold swamps, and may be found in quantities about the margins of our Adirondack lakes. It has many, long, tough, fibrous roots which especially fit it for life in swampy ground.

The larch spray is exceedingly beautiful, as the leaves are attached to little knobs along the side of a branch. In the European larch, which is commonly planted as an ornamental tree, there may be thirty or forty of the needle-like leaves attached to each one of these knobs, which is really a twig shortened to about one-eighth of an inch; the spray thus has a tufted appearance, each long terminal twig looking as if it were decorated with fluffy tassels. In the autumn the leaves turn a dull, bilious yellow and fall to the ground, which is a very unusual performance on the part of a cone-bearing tree.

## PINES

Among all of our tree friends the pines are the most companionable, for they are



RED PINE

the only ones that habitually condescend to conversation. I have several friends among the pines, and each has its own tone of voice and tells a different story; and one rarely speaks at all; not more than three or four times during the year do I hear it whisper. Aside from being friendly trees, the pines are most interesting as subjects of study. The arrangement of their tasseled leaves, and their mathematically tessellated cones, their whorled branches, and the mighty roots spreading far on each side, afford inviting subjects for study. If we live in a land where stump fences abound we have opportunities for studying the great underground system of these splendid trees.

We have common in almost every locality in New York State two species of pines, the white and the pitch-pine. Here and there in the forests occurs the red pine, and on the sandy soils of Long Island grows the Jersey scrub pine. Besides these we have two European species which are commonly planted as ornamental trees; these are the Austrian and the Scotch pine. The following table will assist you in determining which species you have at hand:



## THREE NATIVE PINES COMMON IN NEW YORK STATE

- |   |                    |
|---|--------------------|
| A. Leaves five in a bundle.                   | White pine.        |
| AA. Leaves two, rarely three in a bundle.     |                    |
| B. Cones at or near the tips of the branches. | Red pine.          |
| BB. Cones borne on the sides of the branches. | Jersey scrub pine. |
| AAA. Leaves three in a bundle.                | Pitch-pine.        |

## TWO PINES COMMONLY PLANTED IN PARKS AND GROUNDS

- |  |               |
|--|---------------|
| Leaves two in a bundle, four to six inches long, dark green and very stiff.                                | Austrian pine |
| Leaves two in a bundle, one and one-half to two and one-half inches long, grayish-green, soft and pliable. | Scotch pine.  |



## WHITE PINE

Showing the cones that ripen this year, and those that will ripen next year.

*The White Pine:* This is the most graceful of our pine trees. Its long, fine, grayish-green tassels give it most attractive foliage. Its long cones differ greatly from the cones of the other pines of this region in that the cone scales are thin at the ends, while in most of the others the cone scales are much thickened at the tips. The white pine is also among the most valuable of our timber trees.

*The Pitch Pine:* This is also quite a common tree. Its leaves are shorter and also coarser—and it is never so beautiful or so graceful as the white pine. It is a hardy tree and will grow on rocky and sterile soil. It is the only pine that sends forth shoots after it has been injured by fire.

*The Jersey Scrub Pine:* This is a short tree rarely growing higher than thirty or forty feet. It has long branches, and is in shape a broad pyramid. It seems to grow in the most sterile soils, and is found on worn lands as well as upon the sandy soils of Long Island.

*The Red Pine:* This is sometimes called Norway or Canadian pine. It usually grows eighty feet in height and has a beautiful straight trunk. The foliage is not so dense as on the white pine, and wherever the bark has scaled off or has been injured, it shows a scar of bright, salmon pink. It is sometimes, but too rarely planted in parks.

*The Austrian Pine:* The very long, stiff leaves form its chief characteristic. It is a handsome tree, and much resembles our native red pine, except that its leaves are more pointed and much less flexible, and also larger in diameter. It is hardy in this climate, and since it is so generally planted in parks and grounds it affords a fine opportunity for the study of the flowers and the pollination which occurs the last of May or in June. It is a native of the mountains of eastern Europe, and there very often reaches the height of one hundred and twenty-five feet.



PITCH PINE



WHITE PINE

*The Scotch Pine:* This pine so commonly planted has such short leaves that it has been miscalled Scotch fir, and many people know it under that name. Its leaves scarcely ever exceed two inches in length and many of them are not more than an inch long. It is one of the most important of the timber trees of Europe and Asia. In America it rarely lives a half century.

## LESSON ON EVERGREENS

1. How do evergreen trees grow?
2. What is "the leader"?
3. How does each year's growth affect the height of the tree and length of branches?
4. Do evergreens shed their leaves? When?
5. Is the vegetation under evergreen trees the same as under deciduous trees? Why?

*Take any cone whatever for this lesson.*

6. What is a cone?
7. What is its shape?
8. What sort of flower is a young cone?
9. How many scales are there in a cone?
10. Show by a sketch the shape of one of these scales and its markings.
11. How are the scales arranged in the cone?
12. Where are the seeds in the cone?
13. How are these seeds distributed?

*The Larch or Tamarack.*

14. Describe or figure the cones, giving size, color and shape.
15. Do they grow at the tip or along the sides of the branches?
16. Do they stand up or hang down?
17. What is the special value of the tamarack wood?
18. Why is it used for water pipes?
19. What does Longfellow say about the larch in Hiawatha?

20. If you have ever been in a tamarack swamp describe it.

*Any Pine in Your Locality.*

21. What is the general shape of the tree, and where does it grow?
22. What is the shape of the cone?
23. What is the character of the bark?
24. How long are the needles, and how do they compare in length and thickness with any other species of pine in your locality?
25. How many needles grow together in a bundle?
26. Is this bundle enclosed in a little sheath at the base?
27. Are these bundles grouped in distinct tassels; if so, how many constitute a tassel?
28. What shade of green is the general color of the foliage?
29. Cut a pine needle in two and look at the end with a lens, and note its shape. The white pine differs decidedly from the others in this particular.
30. How can you tell this year's cone from last year's and from next year's cones?
31. How old is the cone when it opens and scatters its seed?
32. How many seeds are there under a single cone scale?
33. How many kinds of flowers does the pine tree have and where are they borne?
34. How is the pollen scattered?
35. Which is the most important commercially of our pine trees?
36. What is the pine wood used for?
37. What is resin? Of what use is it to the tree? To the cone?
38. What is the difference between resin and rosin?

[Correspondence, enclosing stamp, regarding answers to questions or other features of these Nature Study lessons may be addressed to Editor THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Hyde Park, Chicago.]

# IN METER

## OUR LADY'S TUMBLER

On a leaf that waits but a breath to crumble  
Is written this legend of fair Clairvaux,  
How once at the abbey gates stood humble  
A carle more supple than beechen bow,  
And they cloistered him, though to dance and tumble  
Was all the lore he had wit to know.

He had never a vesper hymn nor matin,  
*Pater noster* nor *credo* learned;  
Ill had the wood-birds taught him Latin,  
But to every wayside cross he turned,  
And Our Lady of Val wore cloth of satin  
Because of the gold his gambols earned.

So they cloistered him at his heart's desire,  
Though never a stave could he tone aright.  
With shame and grief was his soul a-fire  
To stand in the solemn candle-light  
Abashed and mute before priest and choir  
And the little lark-voiced acolyte.

Of penance and vigil he was not chary,  
With bitter rods was his body whipt;  
Yet his heart, like a stag's, was wild and wary,  
Till at last, one morn, from the Mass he slipt  
And hied him down to a shrine of Mary  
Deep in the dusk of the pillared crypt.

"Ah, beauteous Lady," he cried, imploring  
The image whose face in the gloom was wan,  
"Let me work what I may for thine adoring,  
Though less than the least of thy clergeons can,  
But here thou art lonely, while chants are soaring  
In the church above; and a dancing-man

Might do thee disport." Then he girt him neatly  
And vaulted before her the vault of Champagne.  
On his head and hands he tumbled featly,  
Did the Arragon twirl and the leap of Lorraine,  
Till the Queen of Heaven's dim lips smiled sweetly  
As she watched his joyance of toil and pain.

Ay, even so long as the High Mass lasted  
He plied his art in that darksome place,  
And never again he scourged nor fasted  
His eager body whose lissome grace  
Cheered Our Lady till years had wasted  
The dancer's force, and he drooped apace.

And once, when the buds were bright on the larches  
And the young wind whispered of violets,  
He came like a wounded knight who marches  
To the tomb of Christ. With striving and sweats  
He made there under those sombre arches  
The Roman spring and the vault of Metz.

Then he could no more and, with hand uplifted,  
Saluted Our Lady and fell to earth,  
Where the monks discovered his corse all drifted  
Over with blooms of celestial birth.  
For when human worship at last is sifted,  
Our best is labor and love and mirth.

—Katharine Lee Bates.

# IN METER

## A PRAYER TO THE UNKNOWN GOD

Power that I cannot name! Thou, Father, God!  
For such I called Thee in my early prayer,  
Not knowing, Thou did'st dwell upon the air,  
And make Thy resting-place within the sod,—  
O Thou, Unknown! Being of star and clod,  
Mazing Thy trackless way in comet's glare;  
Seen in the dew-drop on a morning fair,  
When Nature smiles forgetful of Thy rod,—  
To Thee I pray! To Thee breathe soft and low,  
The old full words of faith and hope; nor deem  
That Thou art such as cannot know  
My hungry need. To me Thy face doth seem,—  
Not like the heavens stern, and stamped with woe,  
But tender like the Christ of childhood's dream.

—Artemas Jean Haynes.

## MORE

More ships there are that sail the ocean wide  
Than now thou thinkest or can'st realize.  
Who knows when some swift turning of the tide  
May bring to thee, the one that bears a prize?  
More loyal human hearts there are I wot  
In this old world than we can e'er divine.  
How many of those hearts thou knowest not,  
May beat in loving sympathy with thine.  
More isles are sleeping in the far off sea  
Than have been seen,—than men have trodden yet.  
In life more beauties are awaiting thee  
Than thus far in the journey thou hast met.

—J. Leroy Stockton.

## TO- MORROW

Today white clouds, like lobes of canvas swelling,  
Hang in the blue.  
Light, pendant greenery  
Sways in a happy languor. Music swelling  
From feathered throats. All Summer's scenery  
Is born anew.  
Youth sings within us, ne'er one thought of sorrow;  
All hope, all joy, lives in that word, "Tomorrow."  
Men grown, we man the battle-line of life,  
Conscripts of fate.  
Some weed of bitterness  
Invests the best of us, a growth of strife.  
Gay costumes fade; arms seem to glitter less  
To us of late.  
Each day we hear the cry of mankind's sorrow;  
No further meaning holds the coming morrow.  
Old, old we are; yet—strange!—with age comes peace,  
A calm repose.  
Nature gives eagerly,  
As she gave long ago, of her increase;  
Nay, generous always she; we meagerly  
Picked, culled and chose.  
Now comes again the old, the lost Ideal;  
Tomorrow,—ah, tomorrow makes it real!

—H. Arthur Powell.



CHARLES WAGNER

Charles Wagner, the French idealist, is the pastor of a "liberal" Protestant church in Paris but is best known to the American public through his writings and his lectures delivered in the United States during the present year. In many respects he is a remarkable man. With his little flock almost lost in the midst of French Catholicism and Freethinking, this pastor has asserted himself as few others with the same opportunities, and has made his influence felt by all classes.

Could Charles Wagner wield the brush, he would be a wonderful artist. With a master's grasp of the beauties of nature, of character, of existence, his practiced eye sees their harmonies, and with deft hand he blends the colors, and presents to the gaze a finished sketch of simplicity. He protests against greed, against covetousness, against jealousy—all the petty cavilings that make men mean and contemptible. He stands a champion of fraternity with its responsibilities. Amid the clatter of the military and the bustle of commercialism, his endeavor his counsel is refreshing—it suggests a larger life.

His philosophy holds that Good is independent of Creed—the former is an end; the latter but a means. Differences in belief are no barrier to coöperation in Utilitarianism. Protest against the modern artificiality and speciousness of living, he holds up, as a standard, the common and simple charms of nature and of sincerity. His philosophy has been likened to that of Emerson.

Among the books of Charles Wagner, the best known are "Jeunesse," and "La Vie Simple." Others of his works are: "L'Evangile et la Vie," "Sois un Homme," "L'Amour des Choses," "Le Long du Chemin," and "L'Amie."

# Modern European Idealists



MR. AND MRS. BJORNSTJERNE BJORNSON

Contemporary of Wergeland, Lie and Ibsen, Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson has been identified with some of the highest utilitarian movements of Norway. Born in 1832, he stands today, as in his prime, the virile exponent of simplicity, purity and equality. Son of a minister of the state church—reared in an atmosphere of creed—he has broken away and stands at the head of those who espouse liberty of conscience and the abolition of an established religion.

Educated in three of the great universities of Europe—Christiana, Upsala, Copenhagen—his scholarship is ripe. He draws his inspiration from the *sagas*, from real history, from modern social life. A student of human nature and a politician in the higher sense, he sees practical possibilities, which give to his writings an authoritative tone. Intensely patriotic, his love for the fatherland throbs, and his "nation spirit" becomes contagious. He has contributed one of Norway's most popular national songs: "Yes, we love this land"—he title alone betokening his spirit of gentleness and simplicity. Yet, withal, he does not allow his patriotism to obscure his ideal of universal world peace—a hope which he believes will some day be fulfilled.

Although Bjørnson has traveled much—on one occasion (1880-1) making a lecture tour in the United States—he is domestic in his tastes, and finds his greatest enjoyment in his rural home—Aulestad—with his devoted helpmate. With her he realizes his ideals of true womanhood—to him almost a cult, holding that the same moral standards apply to man and woman alike.

Among the most important of his writings are: "Synnöve Solbakken," "Arne," "A Happy Boy," "The Bridal March," "The Fisher Lass," "Captain Mansana," "Magnhild," "The Heritage of the Kurts," "A Gauntlet," "Pastor Sang," "Paul Lange," "Laboremus," and his two *tendenz* novels: "In God's Way," and "Flags are Flying in the Town."

# How a "Jingo" Word Was Converted

By John Coleman Adams

**I**T was a word invented away back in the days when the art of fortification was in its infancy. It had its origin in German forests, and at the period when our Teutonic ancestors were learning how to protect their villages from hostile attacks, in the simplest and most primitive way, by the building of palisades around them. These defenses were made by setting great stakes on end, planting them firmly in the ground, ranging them close to one another, and sometimes sharpening their tops. In days when the only missiles were stones, and clubs, and arrows and javelins, such a wall, though we should call it hardly more than a fence, was a really admirable fortification; and no doubt its inventor and its builders were regarded as great military engineers. It was necessary, too, for the village of a clan or a tribe, at that stage of civilization was constantly in danger of being raided, plundered, and burned by hostile clans; and to be without a wall was to be at the mercy of every prowling invader.

Now the naming of such a fortification was the simplest thing in the world. It was made of the trunks or boles of trees. It was, therefore, according to the simple laws of naming which prevailed among the German people, a tree-work, a bole work; that is to recall the exact form, a "*boll-werk*." That was its primitive name. Its date is fixed at the stage in development in the arts of life when our ancestors were able to build these log-forts. Its geographical place is attested by the fact that in German or in Dutch, in Danish, Swedish, and even Icelandic, we find the word in almost identical form. It is plain of course, that this is our word *bulwark*. The original bulwark was a wooden fortification, for the protection of the village of a people who fought with the simple missiles which their crude arts could fashion. The word commemorates a period when war was the common state

of society and a bulwark or a wall was as necessary a part of the town equipment as a street railway today. The "wood-works" of the early German town were as essential to its existence as the "water-works" are to the nineteenth century city.

But the arts of war are constantly developing. There is no such thing as a halt in the progress of the devices for attack and defense. The centuries go by, and we find men improving their weapons, inventing ways of battering down the walls of the towns they are besieging, of hurling leaden missiles against them, of crushing them with battering rams, of setting them on fire, of scaling them with ladders. So the old log-work, the breast-work of trees, must be abandoned for something more solid and durable. The wooden palisade gives place to a wall of stone. The mason takes the place of the carpenter, and the fortifications become more impregnable. But the ancient name sticks. It is harder to change the term than it is to change the thing it describes. We have abandoned the feather, or quill, with which men used to write; put the old word "penna," a feather, is still applied to the bit of steel or gold which has taken its place. The Englishman still rides in a coach on his railway, preserving the name of the vehicle once drawn by horses on the highways. Therefore long after the "bulwark" ceased to be a "boll-werk," the old name was applied to the stone rampart which has taken its place.

But though the old word persisted, it was nevertheless a modified form which lived, at least in our region. The old word crossed the Rhine, and passed current among the Gallic tribes and nations, the Galli, the Belgæ, the Keltæ. On their lips it took a softened form; the "boll-werk" became the "boulevard," and probably ceased to mean anything but the great city wall, the broad stone rampart with its massive towers, its heavy gates, its moats and its drawbridges. The old



forest origin faded out of the word. But it still stood for the defense of the town, still called up the thought of war and its dangers, the assault, the siege, the sack, or the sortie. The "boulevard" was still the witness to frequent feuds, the jealousies of neighboring peoples, the interruption of trade and tillage by the rallying of the men-at-arms, and the expeditions to settle with sword and lance the quarrel of some count, or earl, or king.

Again the years elapse, and the "boulevard" undergoes another transformation. The city or town has in many cases grown beyond its limits, and it falls within the boundaries it is supposed to defend. But there is little peril to those quarters which are without the protection of the "bulwark" or the "boulevard." For the sounds of war are seldom heard around the town. It has grown to be the rarest of occurrences for its business to be interrupted by the confusion and the violence of conflict. That which was once a permanent condition of affairs has now become so infrequent as to be abnormal; and as war was once normal now peace is the rule and war the exception.

Following the development of this new and more pacific tendency in social life, the "boulevard" has fallen into neglect. It has ceased to be the scene of the soldiers' drill and the sentry's patrol. It no longer bristles with cannon. It is a walk, a promenade, the strolling place of children, the recreation ground of the citizens. Such a change has come to the old walls of Chester and York, in England. The fortifications of the Middle Ages are useless now. It is hundreds of years since these cities have known the scourge of war, or needed the shelter of these moated ramparts. The "boulevard" is no more than a public walk, where the peaceful people, innocent of the warlike spirit and free from war's alarms, amuse their leisure and take their harmless exercise.

Indeed in more than one city the wall has been leveled, and in its place, on the foundations which once upheld these

grim defences from attack, there has been laid out a broad roadway, an attractive avenue. The old relic of warlike times is gone, and its place is held by the road, the highway, which is the witness to the quiet life, the habitual peace of the community. But the old name endures. It has totally lost its original meaning. The "boll-werk" is no longer a "bulwark." The "boulevard" is nothing but a broad avenue with never a sign of wall, or tower, or portcullis, or gate. But still the name persists. The roadway is called the "boulevard." The "log-work" is converted into a "stone-work,"—macadam, asphalt, granite block, or cobblestone. But the transformed, the leveled rampart, still carries the old name. A boulevard is the peaceful descendant and successor of the warlike "boll-werk."

Thus the one word is the link which binds together the age of war and the age of peace, the palisades of the German forest and the brilliant avenues of Paris and Vienna and New York. One word bears witness in its own transformations and evolutions, to the decline of war, the prevalence of peace. The same great tendency, as irresistible as it is deliberate, and slow and leisurely in its progress, which is beating the spears of the nations into pruning-hooks and its swords into ploughshares, has leveled the ramparts of walled towns into the pleasure roads of a peaceful populace.

Nor is this all. The change in the meaning of the word is complete. The secondary meaning is the exact opposite of the original. A bulwark is a wall; and a wall stands for separation, isolation, holds people apart, is a divider of men and communities. It stands for perpetual jealousies, feuds, conflicts, wars. But a boulevard is a road; and a road is a means of communication, stands for intercourse, acquaintance, understanding, alliance, union, peace and good will. A wall is the proper sign of barbarism; a road is the symbol of civilization. The old bulwark is the emblem of a period in social evolu-



tion when men lived in comparative isolation with all the attendant jealousies and feuds of such an estate. The new boulevard is the emblem of an epoch of free intercourse, better understanding, closer unity and freer commerce, the federation of states, the arbitration of difficulties, the reign of peace. This one word, in its history and evolution in form and meaning epitomizes the greatest movement of social progress, the advance from a state

of universal warfare to one in which peace, if not invariable is at least normal.

The softening of the syllables of the significant word, are typical of that amelioration of society of which Longfellow sings in "The Arsenal at Springfield."

"Down the dark future thro' long generations,

The echoing sounds grow fainter and then  
cease;

And like a bell, with solemn sweet vibrations

I hear once more the voice of Christ say  
'Peace'."

## Failures of the Great

By Austin Bierbower

**M**ANY great men, like D'Israeli, started as failures. The people laughed at them, and, while we now, since they have succeeded, think that their early associates could not appreciate them, they may have deserved nothing but the ridicule which they got. They were real failures then, as they have been real successes since. There was nothing in their first steps like that which distinguished them in their later career, and what there was deserved only indifference. We should not judge too harshly, therefore, the people who did not recognize their genius. There was no genius then to recognize. Not everything done by one who afterwards becomes great is great. The first acts of great men are generally small. Their greatness does not come till late, and it does not usually give any hint of itself from the first. Many a man remains small, not only in reputation but in conduct, through the first half of his career. Greatness comes after many efforts, and grows in the efforts as well as in the results. It is usually an accumulation—a lot of little things that all together make one greatness, but in each individual act not very important. Not everything that a great man does is great, even when he is at his greatest. Great men's deeds are mostly small, and their first ones all small. Only rarely is found a precocious genius,

and he is usually an ephemeral one. The greatness that lasts is of long growth, and is rarely recognized till mature. While talent may show itself early it seldom appears very strong or very useful until it has passed through much of its career.

D'Israeli's first speech in Parliament, for which he was laughed down, was a poor speech, and merited little more than laughter. Those who ridiculed it were, therefore, excusable. It was not their fault that they saw nothing in it to commend; there was nothing to commend. D'Israeli commenced badly, and the worthlessness of his effort was taken at its fair value. He did better afterwards, when he was again appreciated at his true value, and this time highly. His littleness had been ridiculed, his greatness was now admired. The two sides of his character were appreciated with equal justness. Men have no right to complain if they are not recognized before they do anything worth recognition. It is nobody's fault that genius suffers long while earning a position in life. It can come up to prominence only through mediocrity, and one must work his way pretty far up before he can be very high; and the low point from which he starts, and the low stages through which he passes, have no interest for the people, at least not till he has passed them.



#### LIMITED COOPERATION IN THE UNITED STATES

Why is the scope of coöperation so limited in America? Dr. Charles R. Henderson says: "Our economical conditions have been very different from those of the old country. Until within the last ten years every man had a chance of escaping from the wage status to ownership of cheap government land, if he chose to do so. . . . A permanent residence in a city or manufacturing town was not thought of as necessary. Wages were higher than in other countries and the necessity of small economies was not seriously felt. It was more convenient to be served by retail dealers and pay for the luxury."

There is the American department store with its "bargain days" and "installment payments"; the deceptive allurements of "five and ten-cent stores"; the seeming smallness of the long awaited profits which are not nearly so tangible as "trading stamps," whatever their actual comparative value. To these causes may be added the nomadism common among large groups of American workingmen. It is suggested also that we lack that "element of spiritual and prophetic ambition" which is found in the English movement, partly due it may be to a reaction from the enforced rules of the labor union.

But as Dr. Henderson says in "The Social Spirit in America": "The principle is not generally understood and appreciated in the United States. There is confusion of thought in respect to the objects, principles and methods of real workingmen's coöperation. The idea has been made so popular by the English success that the title has been appropriated

by various promoters of schemes for profit. More legitimate, yet still misleading, is the use of the term by all kinds of joint stock companies in which the members invest capital and draw dividends in proportion to capital invested. There is no objection to this method of investment. For a long time it will be one of the best ways for wage-earners to improve their conditions. But this is not coöperation in the proper sense. In all these plans the gain goes to capital and the control is in few hands. This is a business method but not a workingman's ideal."

However, the growing social spirit in America makes organized coöperation increasingly possible, and the marked success of rural coöperation will doubtless lead to extension in other directions.

"Is the coöperative movement growing?" "As steady as clock-work," replied Mr. N. O. Nelson, the well-known manufacturer and social leader, who is an executive committee-man of the International Coöperative Alliance, with headquarters in London.

During the Coöperative Congress held at St. Louis, the past summer, Mr. Nelson was appointed member of a committee to locate the coöperative enterprises existing in America and to endeavor to bring about some form of alliance either nationally or by states. The address of any coöperative interest is much desired by Mr. Nelson, who is also quite willing to answer questions, either theoretical or practical.

The fruit growers' association of California, the grain shippers of Iowa and Kansas, and the creameries of Minnesota and other states, afford illustrations of coöperative achievement in this country. Minnesota alone contains six hundred coöperative creameries.

## AMERICAN COOPERATIVE TELEPHONE EXPERIMENT

The company was organized on this basis: A capitalization of \$5,000 divided into 100 shares, each representing the cost of installation of a single telephone (\$50); each stockholder to be permitted to hold one share of stock for each telephone rented by him, and no more; ownership of the stock to be absolutely confined to renters of telephones. The rates, less dividends, in time made the cost \$1.50 a month for business service, and 25 cents a month for residences.

Such is the brief history of the Grand Rapids, Wisconsin, experiment. It proves if it proves anything, that the citizenship of the average American town can be trusted to deal intelligently and economically with public utilities. The people's business can be safely given over to the people, rather than left to a private corporation whose sole aim is exploitation. The lesson of the Grand Rapids experience was not unheeded by neighboring cities. Similar coöperative telephone systems have been organized in the other Wisconsin Valley cities of Wausau, Merrill, and Marshfield, all of which were formerly profitable territory for the operations of the same monopoly that dictated terms to Grand Rapids. In this little group of Wisconsin Valley towns, an aggregate population of from 30,000 to 40,000 is now served by coöperative telephone exchanges. . . . A very noticeable result of the success attending the Grand Rapids enterprise was the stimulus to other undertakings of the kind. A coöperative electric light and power company was formed on similar lines, the capital stock being fixed at \$40,000, divided into shares of \$10 each, sold only to renters of the service, one share for every rental unit of \$2.50 a year. This company, besides supplying light to the city and to private houses, offers to furnish power to small manufacturing concerns.—*Review of Reviews*, Feb., 1902.

## EXAMPLES OF EUROPEAN COOPERATION

Great Britain leads in productive and distributive coöperation, and in the strength and perfection of her coöperative organization. Germany leads in coöperative banking, her 12,083 people's banks doing a business of \$850,000,000 or \$900,000,000 a year. The United States stands next in coöperative credit institutions, with 5,302 loan associations having over 1,500,000 members, and \$330,000,000 of business, and we lead the world in coöperative insurance, with 3,800 associations, more than 8,000,000 members, \$100,000,000 of premium receipts in 1901, and \$13,000,000,000 of insurance outstanding at the end of the year.

Out of nearly 2,500 associations in the United Kingdom, 1,604 report \$400,000,000 of trade, wholesale, retail and productive, with \$45,000,000 of profit last year. The total membership is about 2,000,000, representing something like 8,000,000 of people, or nearly one-fifth of the total population. The big military store in London has 100,000 customers, the manager told me. But the largest of the thoroughly coöperative societies is that of Leeds, with about half that many members. It does a business of \$7,330,000 a year with \$1,165,000 profit, and pays back a fifteen per cent dividend on purchases. Some societies pay twenty per cent, and a few twenty-five and even thirty per cent, but five to fifteen per cent is the rule, and the average is about eleven per cent. The Scottish Wholesale Society does a business of \$20,000,000 a year, and the sales of the English Wholesale amount to \$80,000,000. About \$20,000,000 worth of the goods thus sold are manufactured by the Wholesale Societies. The English Wholesale manufactures boots and shoes, saddlery, woolen cloth, flannel, undergarments, corsets, shirts, clothing, brushes, bedding, furniture, crockery, soap, candles, butter, bacon, lard, flour, corn-meal, bread, cakes, candies, cocoa, chocolate, etc., does

upholstery, printing, binding, lithography, building, raises fruit on its own farm, and imports goods from foreign countries in its own fleet of steamships. It pays more than union wages and adopts eight hours as the standard day's work, but does not give the workers a share in the profits as the Scottish Wholesale does.

The coöperators of Kettering number over 4,000 altogether out of a population of 25,000, so that probably over fifty per cent of the people are coöperative. Rugby is still stronger, and there are some smaller places, like Desborough, which are practically all coöperators. The workmen of England are learning to "co-talk less and co-work more."

Denmark's coöperative creameries handle four-fifths of the milk produced in the country and make \$35,000,000 worth of butter a year.

One of the best store societies is that of Basle, in Switzerland. Its membership has grown in five years from 14,000 to 22,000, or nearly eighty per cent. It has about seventy stores, forty of them provision stores, and eighteen butcher shops.

The coöperative association of masons in Milan has been employed by the city

to do work in connection with the famous Monumental Cemetery, which surpasses all other cemeteries in the beauty of its sculptured monuments, and the fidelity and exactitude of the coöperative workmen leaves nothing to be desired. They have done \$1,300,000 worth of work for the municipality. — From *"Coöperative Undertakings in Europe and America,"* by Frank Parsons, in *The Arena*, August, 1903.



#### IN DENMARK, IRELAND, HOLLAND, AND GERMANY

Agricultural coöperation in Denmark has been revolutionary in its effects upon the welfare of the rural sections. The creameries, pork packing and egg shipping interests, by raising the quality and establishing standards, have led to increasing exports three to ten times what they were fifteen years ago.

The Irish movement although barely three years old, is of great promise, and is peculiarly significant because of the lack of cohesion among the people and other extreme difficulties in this ill-starred land. But the enthusiasm, intelligence and influence of the leaders with their careful study of the Danish movement warrant much faith in the outcome.

The people's country banks, of which Holland and Germany each contain some thousands, have been surprisingly successful in view of their making loans upon personal security only and at an advance of but one or two per cent over the rate paid to depositors. In *"The Best Methods of Organization for Agricultural Coöperation and Credit"* will be found some surprising statements about the success of these "banks" which are characterized by local, unpaid administration; no dividends; profits going to the reserve; small shares with unlimited liabilities; loans granted for long periods; and no favors from the state or individuals, save in the rarest cases when limited outside aid may be granted only at the start,



EDAM CHEESE  
Dutch coöperative dairy.

## COOPERATIVE BANKING IN IRELAND

Mr. Horace Plunkett has popularized in Ireland the system of Coöperative Banking, which has been found useful for more than a quarter of a century in Italy,



COOPERATIVE DRUG STORE, MILAN, ITALY

and for more than half a century in Germany. There are about forty Agricultural Credit Banks now doing business in Ireland. No one has described Coöperative Credit better than Mr. Plunkett himself. He calls it, "A system by which the very poorest communities can create a credit for themselves, based entirely upon the honesty and industry of their members." Money is at the base of every commercial undertaking. In a coöperative Banking Corporation, time after time, a few poor men have united to form the nucleus of a society. They have very carefully chosen, to add to their number, certain other steady workers and honest men. They have next pledged their joint and unlimited credit to any person, or any bank, ready to lend them a sum of money. They have used that money solely to lend it out among themselves. The loans were always made subject to one condition, namely, that the borrower should satisfy his fellow-members that he was asking for a sum for the purpose of employing it in some specified, and approved, industrial undertaking; and that, in all human probability, he will be able to repay the money at a given date, out of the results of his enterprise.—*From "Coöperative Credit," by E. M. Lynch, in The Catholic World, August, 1902.*

## REASONS FOR GROWTH OF COOPERATION

Merely the headings can be given of Prof. Frank Parson's summary of causes for the remarkable growth of coöperation in Europe. The full outline as given in the *Arena*, July, 1903, should be read by those interested.

1. "Coöperation means union in place of conflict, harmony instead of antagonism. Buyer and seller are no longer opposed.
2. "Coöperation means the diffusion of wealth. In the first place profits are widely distributed among consumers and makers. In the second place wages are higher and salaries lower than in competitive business in the same locality.
3. "Coöperation means the diffusion of power. It destroys industrial mastery and private monopoly.
4. "It offers a solution of the problem of the trust. The evils of the trust arise from the concentration of wealth and power.
5. "Coöperation secures safety. Wherever the coöperators are thoroughly organized the store is sure of its custom and the coöperative manufacturer is sure of his market.
6. "It aids the adjustment of supply and demand. The chaotic production of competitive industry with its alternate gluts and famines has no place in the coöperative world.
7. "It stimulates industry. The competitive system devitalizes the very nerve of energy by denying the makers any share in the profits of control.
8. "It creates power not only by stimulating industry but through organization and education developing a public sentiment that tends to eliminate elements of individual and social waste.
9. "It favors economy. This results from the stimulation of industry, the better payment of labor, the moderate cost of management and the stoppage of the wastes of conflict. Coöperative industry is not like the milk business, with a dozen competing carts following each other through the same streets every morning, but like the postal service that maps out the whole city and gives each part its fair proportion with no duplication.
10. "Coöperation favors good quality, pure food, honest work and reliable goods.
11. "It favors temperance. Intemperance diminishes the profits of all concerned, and public sentiment among coöperators will not tolerate it.
12. "It improves the condition of labor—higher wages, shorter hours, more light and air, better sanitation, purer food, more care for safety of buildings, elevators, machinery, etc., dignity of partnership, uplift of responsibility and hope.
13. "Coöperation helps the trade-unions. John Burns told me that the coöperative societies were a source of great strength in time of strike.
14. "It develops a nobler manhood and a higher type of character. Industry, energy,

sobriety, self-respect, self-reliance, intelligence, sympathy and public spirit are all favored by coöperation.

15. "Coöperation favors good government.

16. "Coöperation places man above the dollar, and lifts our whole civilization to a higher plane."

The article on Coöperation in Johnson's Universal Cyclopedia outlines some of the disadvantages and sources of weakness. E. W. Lynch in the *Catholic World* gives some arguments pro and con in colloquial form.



#### CIVIC IMPROVEMENT AWARDS AT ST. LOUIS

In the department of Social Economy at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, the jury for civic improvement exhibits awarded thirteen grand prizes—two United States, one France, ten Germany; thirty-seven gold medals—nineteen United States, two France, one Mexico, thirteen Germany, two Great Britain; eighteen silver medals—ten United States, one Belgium, two France, four Germany, one Great Britain; and ten bronze medals—four United States, one Brazil, three Germany, two France.

Dr. Wilms, Oberbürgermeister of Posen, Germany, was chairman of the jury; Dr. Frank L. McVey of the University of Minnesota, vice-chairman; Mrs. Conde Hamlin, St. Paul, secretary. Dr. Albert, assistant German Commissioner; M. Cante of France; Mrs. E. P. Turner of Texas, appointed by Board of Lady Managers, and E. G. Routzahn, Bureau of Civic Coöperation, Chicago, were other members. Their examination covered exhibits classified under city organization, protection to life and property, public service industries, streets and sewers, parks, baths, recreation, city beautification, etc.

The exhibits were found in the model street, Liberal Arts Building, Education and Social Economy Building, United States Government Building, Transportation Building, and various foreign gov-

ernment buildings. Most notable were the exhibits of the street cleaning department of New York City, the combined exhibit of St. Paul and Minneapolis, and the complete exhibits of German cities, Berlin, Cologne, Dresden, Frankfurt-on-Main, Stuttgart and others. Among special exhibits were those from Hanover, Munich, Magdeburg, Breslau, Paris, Birmingham, Manchester and Nice. From American cities exhibits included Boston, San Francisco, Kansas City and Cleveland.

The educational value of this wealth of material was hampered by being scattered in so many sections and buildings and it is pertinently urged that such an auspicious beginning points the way to a great Municipal Exposition hereafter.



#### CLEVER CARD FROM KALAMAZOO

PLEASE! The Women's Civic Improvement League has undertaken to keep Main Street clean. We ask YOU to help us. Please *do not throw anything*—paper, fruit skins or other litter,—*in the street*; put it in the waste paper can at the corner. And, *Gentlemen, please do not spit on the sidewalk*, or in the gratings, or anywhere but in the gutter.

Now, please don't throw *this* in the street!



#### TOPICS IN THE MAGAZINES

Boston's Municipal Gymnasiums. William R. Woodbury. *The Commons*, October.

Social Tendencies of the Industrial Revolution. Graham Taylor. *The Commons*, October.

A New Departure in Summer Outing. Benjamin Clarke Marsh. *Charities*, Sept. 24.

A Constructive Social Program for the Average Community. Joseph Lee. *Charities*, Oct. 1.

Vacant Lot Gardens vs. Vagrancy. R. F. Powell. *Charities*, Oct. 1.

Self-Government and "The Bunch" (Experiment in Handling Unruly and Delinquent Boys). Frederick A. King. *Charities*, Oct. 1.

The Reasons for Manual Training. Walter J. Kenyon. *Education*, October.

The Awakening of Agriculture. Wilhelm Miller. *Country Life in America*, November.

Flowers for the Autumn. Thomas McAdam. *Country Life in America*, November.

Physical Environment and Its Effect on Employees. Edwin L. Shuey. *The Book-keeper and Business Man's Magazine*, October.

A New Occupation: The Welfare Manager. Lillie Hamilton French. *Century*, November.

School Garden in Most Crowded Section of New York. *New York School Journal*, Oct. 29.

# Chautauqua Spare Minute Course

The Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, complete in the pages of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for 1904-05 beginning with September, has been arranged to meet the demand for a short course of systematic reading in place of haphazard, hit or miss reading to no purpose. The course consists of the seven leading serial topics entitled, "Social Progress in Europe," "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany," "German Master Musicians," "Civic Lessons from Europe," "Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare," "How the American Boy is Educated," and "Nature Study" (the last named beginning in October).

This brief course offers to individuals a means of making the time spent in reading count for something during the year. It is planned to give a background, a standard of judgment, power of discrimination, sense of proportion, in a word education along lines of present-day importance, that will make all one's reading of use to him.

Additional articles and the regular departments of the magazine relate to features of the course and constitute important sidelights upon it. "Highways and Byways" editorial comment on the current events with special reference to the serial topics, "Survey of Civic Betterment," "Talk About Books," "News Summary," programs, helps and hints, and special supplementary articles represent a useful and entertaining variety.

One does not need to become a member of any organization to get the benefit of this "group plan" of reading. There is no membership fee and the course is offered to individual readers complete in the magazine for the year.

## RECOGNITION FROM CHAUTAUQUA

In the last magazine of the year containing Spare Minute Course material, blanks will be printed upon the filling out of which a Spare Minute Course Certificate will be awarded by Chautauqua Institution.

Persons will be entitled to a certificate who have read the Spare Minute Course serials named above. These will be known as "Specified Reading." For reading the other "recommended" serials and departments in the magazine a seal on the certificate will be awarded.

## SPARE MINUTE PROGRAMS

The Chautauqua Spare Minute Course is especially adapted to the use of clubs and so-

cieties. It should be particularly helpful to clubs of men, school literary societies, church young people's societies, organizations in shops and stores, and other groups of busy people with few opportunities and limited time.

The program suggestions outlined under this heading will be based upon features of the "Social Progress Year" of topics as presented from month to month in this magazine. It is better to choose a few program suggestions and carry them out well than to try to do too much at a single session.

Summaries: (a) Epitomize article on "Era of Social Speculation and Experiment," F. A. Ogg, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for December; (b) Article on "Coöperative Industries," by Mary R. Cranston, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for December.

Discussion: Coöperation the Next Step for the Labor Movement in the United States.

Readings: (a) From "A Dividend to Labor," N. P. Gilman; (b) From "Methods of Industrial Peace," N. P. Gilman; (c) From "Labor Copartnerships," Henry D. Lloyd; (d) From "Coöperative Commonwealth," Horace Gronlund; (e) From "An Experiment in Communism" (The Doukhobors), Aylmer Maude, *World Today*, November; (f) From books listed in bibliography accompanying Mr. Ogg's article in December *CHAUTAUQUAN*; (g) From "The New Harmony Communities," George B. Lockwood, and "Brook Farm," L. Swift.

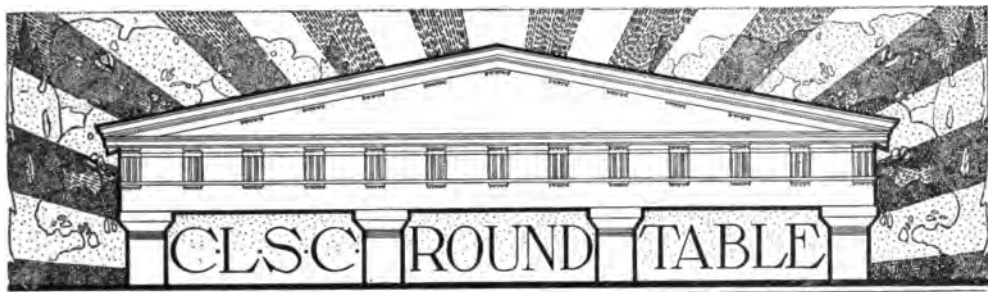
Papers: (a) How Far is the Public School System a Coöperative Establishment; (b) The Post Office Department as a Socialistic Experiment; (c) How Germany Has Fostered the Higher Arts: Architecture, Painting, Theater, Music, etc. (See articles on Munich and Mozart in this issue of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.)

Addresses: (a) Individual Liberty; (b) The Strength and Weakness of Socialism; (c) "The Simple Life."

Question Box: Utopias, Ancient and Modern.

Additional program material may be found in "Current Events Programs," "Suggestive Programs for Local Circles," "The Travel Club," etc., on other pages of this issue of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Correspondence or inquiries may be addressed to the Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, Chautauqua, New York.



## COUNSELORS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

JESSE L. HURLBUT, D. D.

LYMAN ABBOTT, D. D.

HENRY W. WARREN, D. D.

J. M. GIBSON, D. D.

EDWARD EVERETT HALE, D. D.

JAMES H. CARLISLE, LL. D.

WM. C. WILKINSON, D. D.

W. P. KANE, D. D.

MISS KATE F. KIMBALL, Executive Secretary.

### CHRISTMAS, 1904

"Come Thou, dear Prince, oh come to us this holy Christmas time! Come to the busy marts of earth, the quiet homes, the noisy streets, the humble lanes; come to us all, and with Thy love touch every human heart that we may know that love and in its blessed peace bear charity to all mankind!"—*Eugene Field.*



"Nation with nation, land with land  
Unarmed shall live as comrades free;  
In every heart and brain shall throb  
The pulse of one fraternity."

—*John Addington Symonds.*

"The Nestor of the Peace Cause in America" is the new title recently given to Chautauqua's honored counselor, Dr. E. E. Hale, as a tribute to his devotion to the cause of international peace. But titles count for very little with a man whose rule of life is, "touch elbows with the rank and file," and Dr. Hale is confessedly only working for the good time described by the old Hebrew writer: "They helped every one his neighbor and every one said to his brother 'Be of good courage'." Is it worth while to be an idealist in a material world? Dr. Hale's beautiful life, a power even now at fourscore and two, answers the question. In 1895 at the Mohonk Conference on "International Arbitration" he made a great speech in behalf of "a permanent tribunal," and this idea he has reiterated year after year. Mr. Edwin D. Mead in commenting upon it recently said:

"I remember hearing one of our famous diplomats declare at Mohonk after Dr. Hale's memorable speech in 1896, that it was 'not probable that for many years to come the governments would accept any such ideal'. And an-

other eminent diplomat declared the next year that 'it aims too high for our day!' That was in 1897. In less than half a dozen years The Hague Conference had been held, The Hague conventions signed, The Hague Tribunal established, and the first case before it decided—a case in which the United States was a party. This history is worth remembering by the sceptics about progress. The virtue of Dr. Hale has always been his belief that some things in this world can be done as well as

others, that the things which ought to be done can be done more quickly nowadays than ever before, and that our business is to set about doing these without any talk or much care as to how many years it will take."



EDWARD EVERETT  
HALE

In this connection Chautauqua readers will be glad to know of a very suggestive little pamphlet called "A Primer of the Peace Movement," published by the American Peace Society, Boston, Mass.,

for twenty-five cents. It contains the text of the exhibit prepared by this society for the St. Louis Exposition. The facts are put most effectively, grouped under clearly defined headings and worded concisely. Some of the page headings are "The Practical Program for World Organization," "The New World's Work for Peace," "Heroes of Peace," "What People Can Do." Every Circle will find this pamphlet useful as a basis for discussions touching upon a great variety of topics very vital at the present time.



FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE CLASS OF  
1905

FELLOW CLASSMATES OF 1905:—

After three years of delightful travel through Italy, Germany, England, Russia, America and now France, receiving en route almost prophetic instruction on the scenes and underlying motives of the great international struggle in the Far East; a new and profound regard for the origins of our present language, customs and literature, and a most glorious awakening as to the possibilities and future glory of our noble land—yes, and with many a happy side excursion into borderland Provinces—at last we have reached the final quarter in our wisely-directed race for knowledge and how many of us are in for a strong finish through the golden gate in 1905.



JAMES A. BABBITT

Your president would send his heartiest greeting to each loyal member, scattered here and there over this broad land and urges that you plan now to spend next season by the Lake, and swell the numbers of a happy and harmonious class reunion.

Those of us who have become personally acquainted during past years of class life, well realize what a splendid group may be gathered behind our "Cosmopolitan" banner.

The Secretary will soon send you our plans for a vigorous final season and will you not all join in the enthusiastic preparation for the graduating day?

Most cordially yours,

JAMES A. BABBITT.

Philadelphia, Oct. 23, '04.



FROM MEMBERS OF THE CLASS OF 1905

NEW HAMPSHIRE: I do enjoy the work so much. I have never even met a person who was at all interested in Chautauqua.

I am a teacher in a very lonely mountain region.

ISLAND OF JAMAICA: I have kept up the reading hitherto and hope to do so to the end. I feel quite cut off at times being so far away and alone, but I am very greatly interested in the course, the class and the whole subject, and have gained much good from it. I have a portrait of Browning hanging before me in my sitting room, cosmos flowers in my garden, and my book case curtains tied with ribbon in old gold.

BIDDEFORD, MAINE: We are very much interested in the work and have a great deal of class enthusiasm, and are anxious to have the class pins.

MASSACHUSETTS: Three of us keep house together with a nephew, a dog and a cat! We are busy girls and find the Chautauqua work a great help toward a definite line of reading.

PENNSYLVANIA: My work has been done entirely alone, yet with great interest and in spirit with the class.

TEXAS: It is with the greatest pleasure that I introduce myself and extend the hand of fellowship to the officers of my class. I am an individual member, but do not feel at all lonely as I know I have many classmates and I hope some day to meet with them. The Chautauqua Reading has been an untold pleasure and benefit to me and I shall press on with good cheer and steadfast purpose.



#### THE DICTIONARY HABIT

If Mrs. Malaprop, with her genius for giving the sound of a word and letting the sense take care of itself, should address a socialist meeting today, what havoc she could make with the English tongue! Perhaps we do not fully realize how historic epochs introduce us at intervals to new and often only partially understood words. Glance through our volume on the French Revolution and notice words which especially characterize that period—*bourgeois*, *proletariat*, *com-*

*mune, doctrinaire, third estate, Bourbon, régime.* Then as we come into the period of socialistic agitation we find a different set—*communism, socialism, anarchism, monopoly, profit sharing, arbitration, strike, lockout, boycott, closed shop, open shop*, etc. A few minutes at each Circle meeting devoted to the pronunciation and definition of such words would be a most stimulating exercise. Each member might be required to write in ten minutes a short narrative using each word correctly. A still better way perhaps to insure clear thinking would be to assign the words beforehand and let each member find the synonyms for his particular word and bring in sentences illustrating the shades of meaning which the different synonyms represent. For those who read alone, let us commend "the dictionary habit." Have your dictionary in a convenient place and make it serve you.

## HOW TO MAKE A BOOK REVIEW

The following suggestions on how to make a book review were given by Mr. P. H. Boynton, of the University of Chicago, at one of the C. L. S. C. Councils at Chau-



ALAMINOS, ZAMBALES, P. I.

Teachers' Residences.

See "News from Readers and Circles."

tauqua this summer. We repeat them here for the benefit of those Circles not so fortunate as to have had representatives at Chautauqua.

What a Book Review is not:

1. Not a full and indiscriminating summary of the contents.
2. Not the "story" of a novel or play.
3. Not the outline of an exposition or argument.
4. Not a list of indefinitely attributive adjectives.

A book review should be the result of aggressive observation in which the chief, and only the chief, characteristics are discussed in detail. This examination may focus attention on:

1. The Objective Purport: What sort of things, persons, places is it about? If a novel, has it "atmosphere?" If a book of travel does it deal with town or country, industrial or social elements most?
2. The Medium: How is it written? Is the book the better or the worse for the structure as a whole, and the style in detail?
3. The Subjective Purport: How far does it reveal the author? Do you sympathi



ALAMINOS, ZAMBALES, P. I.

Arch erected in honor of patron saint. Church in background adjoined by a convent which is used as a public school building.

See "News from Readers and Circles."

with his enthusiasms? Share his prejudices? Does what you discover of him lead you to depend implicitly on him or to read him with caution?

A book review should be written for those who have not read the book in question, its motive being:

1. To stimulate others to read or warn them not to, in case of a literary work; or
2. To give them the benefit of your reading, in case of a scientific work.

#### NOTES

Don't forget to make the acquaintance of Carlyle's "French Revolution" while you are reading Professor Mathews' picturesque and orderly account of the great struggle. You may find yourself fascinated by the book and inclined to read it all. You will probably be

repelled by parts of it. But don't fail to see some of the vivid pictures "unmatched for vehement power" painted by the hands of this master. Read the chapters on the Death of Louis XV, The Fall of the Bastille, The Insurrection of Women, Sound and Smoke, The Flight to Varennes, and his characterization of Mirabeau, Danton and Robespierre. Carlyle said of this work: "It is a wild, savage book, itself a kind of French Revolution. It has come hot out of my own soul, born in blackness, whirlwind and sorrow."

The Chautauquans of Connecticut are showing great enterprise in their "Association" which is connected with the Assembly at Forestville. They graduated the largest class this summer of any assembly outside of Chautauqua, and are sending out a tastefully printed little circular to many points in the state offering to help circles organize and to give stereopticon lectures on the C. L. S. C. wherever arrangements can be made for them.

### OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS

#### C. L. S. C. MOTTOES

*"We Study the Word and the Works of God." "Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."  
"Never be Discouraged."*

#### C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

OPENING DAY—October 1.  
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.  
MILTON DAY—December 9.  
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.  
LANIER DAY—February 3.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.  
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.  
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.  
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday  
after first Tuesday.  
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday  
after first Tuesday.  
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.

### OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR JANUARY

JANUARY 7-13—  
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: German Master Musicians.  
Required Book: The French Revolution. Chapter XVII.  
JANUARY 13-20—  
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Munich: The City of the Isar.  
Required Book: The French Revolution. Chapter XVIII.

JANUARY 20-27—  
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Social Progress in Europe.  
Required Book: The French Revolution. Chapter XIX.  
JANUARY 27-FEBRUARY 3—  
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Social Progress in Europe. Reread.  
Required Book: Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century. Chapter I.

### SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

JANUARY 7-13—  
Roll-call: Reports on "Specimens of human brotherhood put into practice" (see article on Coöperative Industries in this magazine, also suggestions in Round Table and Survey of Civic Betterment).  
Review of Chapter XV in "The French Revolution."  
Reading: Selections from Victor Hugo's "'93."  
Brief Review of chief points in Chapters XVI and XVII.  
Character Study: Danton.  
Reading: Selection from "The Story of François," by S. Weir Mitchell.  
Discussion: How the Foreign Wars of France in 1792-5 differed from those of the past ten

years as to their motives, nature of warfare, number of men engaged. Do the motives for war and the nature of it in these late years suggest that higher ideals are gaining ground?  
Paper: A great crisis in "Social Progress" in our own country. The story of the Chicago packers' strike and what it means. (See *The Commons*, for September, 1904—Send ten cents to *The Commons*, 180 Grand Ave., Chicago, also *The World Today*, Nov., '04.)

JANUARY 13-20—  
Map Review: Bavaria and its chief attractions, with general instructions to travelers (see encyclopedias and Baedeker's "Southern Germany").

Summary of article on German Forestry in November CHAUTAUQUAN, 1904.

Roll-call: Reports on some of the famous men of Bavaria; Liebig, Fraunhofer, Röntgen, Kaulbach, Cornelius, Schelling, Schwanthaler, Jean Paul Richter (see encyclopedias).

Papers: The Aegina Marbles—why they are so important (see "A History of Greek Art," by Tarbell; "A Handbook of Greek Sculpture," by E. H. Gardner; "A History of Ancient Sculpture," by L. M. Mitchell); Bavaria's Connection with Greece in 1835-62.

Brief Reports on Bavarian history and legend, as suggested by the monuments, etc., of Munich—Barbarossa Hall, Charlemagne Hall, the Nibelungen Frescoes, Statues to Tilly and Wrede, Obelisk to 30,000 Bavarian soldiers who perished in the Moscow campaign.

Discussion: Dürer and his place in German Art, with ten typical pictures (see "Masters in Art." This monograph on Dürer, containing ten beautiful half tones with descriptions and comment, can be secured from the Chautauqua Office, Chautauqua, N. Y., for twenty cents).

JANUARY 20-27—

Roll-call: Report on famous buildings of Paris and their connection with the Revolution. (See THE CHAUTAUQUAN for November and December, 1899; also April, May and June, 1897; Baedeker's "Paris" and other books available.)

Review of Chapters XVIII and XIX in "The French Revolution."

Reading: Selections from "The White Terror,"

by F. Gras, or from "Citizen Bonaparte," by Erckmann-Chatrain.

Brief summary by leader of the chief events of the six years from 1789-95.

Oral Reports: Quotations from standard writers on the influence of the French Revolution. (See bibliography.)

Discussion of facts contained in "A Primer of the Peace Movement" (see paragraphs in Round Table).

JANUARY 27-FEBRUARY 4—

Map Review: Showing how Napoleon helped to carve out a new map of Europe. (See encyclopedias, Judson's "Europe in the Nineteenth Century" and other modern histories, etc.)

Review of article on "Social Progress in Europe" in current CHAUTAUQUAN.

Oral Report: Charles Wagner, a Modern French Idealist (see other pages of this magazine and articles in *The Craftsman*, Nov., 1904, etc.).

Roll-call: Reports on Word Studies in connection with required readings. (See paragraph in Round Table.)

Readings: Selections from "The Red Republic," by R. W. Chambers or from George Sand's "Consuelo" or "The Countess of Rudolstadt," giving sidelights upon this period.

Discussion: Social agitation in other countries. How it differed from that in France. Different members should report on England, Austria, Germany, Italy and Russia. (See "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," and other histories of Modern Europe, encyclopedias, etc.)



## THE TRAVEL CLUB

### FIRST TWO WEEKS—

Map Review: Bavaria and its chief attractions, with general instructions to travelers. (See Baedeker's "Southern Germany.")

Brief reports on Bavarian history and legend, as suggested by the monuments, etc., of Munich—Barbarossa Hall, Charlemagne Hall, the Nibelungen Frescoes, etc., in Königsbau. Statues to Tilly and Wrede in Hall of the Generals. Obelisk to 30,000 Bavarian soldiers. See Baedeker's "Southern Germany," Larned's "History for Ready Reference," encyclopedias, etc.

Roll-call: Reports on some of the famous men of Munich: Liebig, Fraunhofer, Röntgen, Kaulbach, Cornelius, Schwanthaler, Schelling, Jean Paul Richter. (See encyclopedias.)

Reading: Christmas and New Year in Germany. (See Bayard Taylor's "Views Afoot.")

Papers: Mystery plays of Germany (see "Germany, Present and Past," also other references in bibliography); Bavaria's relations with Greece (Louis, in 1812, and Otho, in 1835).

Reading: Selections from "Christmas Managers at the National Museum," *Century*, 67: 253, (Dec. '03).

### SECOND TWO WEEKS—

Paper: The Aegina Marbles—why they are so important. (See "A History of Greek Art," by Tarbell; "A Handbook of Greek Sculpture," by E. H. Gardner, or "History of Ancient Sculpture," by L. M. Mitchell. In New York, Chicago or Boston casts of these marbles will be found at the museums.)

Oral Report: The new theater at Munich. (See *Harper's Weekly*, 45:1052 (Oct., 1900); *Music*, 20:289 and 344.)

Reading: Bavarian Pleasant Play, (see *Nation*, 47:474) or reading from "German Life in Town and Country," or from article on German Forestry in November CHAUTAUQUAN, 1904.

Roll-call: Reports on individual works of art of special importance in the Munich Galleries. (Illustrations can be secured in the Perry pictures.)

Paper: Dürer and his place in German Art.

Discussion: Ten pictures by Dürer (see "Masters in Art," this monograph on Dürer containing ten beautiful half tones with description and comment can be secured from the Chautauqua Office, Chautauqua, N. Y., for twenty cents.)

## ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON DECEMBER READINGS

## SOCIAL PROGRESS IN EUROPE

1. The son of Louis XVI had been imprisoned and maltreated by the Terrorists during the Revolution. He died while still a boy, in 1795, but after the fall of Napoleon the Bourbon family wishing the continuity of their line to appear unbroken and simply ignoring the Revolution and Napoleon, always spoke of the unfortunate prince as Louis XVII, and Louis XVIII dated his reign from the boy's death in 1795. 2. The period between Napoleon's return from Elba and his final defeat at Waterloo. 3. The three-hundredth anniversary of Luther's defiance of the Pope. 4. When Napoleon took possession of Spain, in 1808-9 the Spanish-American states refused to recognize his authority and proceeded to set up governments of their own. At first they professed loyalty to the old Bourbon line of Spanish sovereigns and declared they were in rebellion only against the rule of the usurper. But after getting a taste of independence they were loath to return to their former allegiance, even after Ferdinand was put on the Spanish throne in 1814, and they were easily able to maintain themselves in their new role as independent nations. 5. A neutralized state is one to

which the greater powers have guaranteed its independence and security, with the understanding that it shall not make war without their consent and that they will not make war upon it. Belgium and Switzerland are examples.

## A READING JOURNEY IN BELGIUM AND GERMANY

1. George V. 2. The founder was the grandson of Charlotte Kestner, the original Lotta in Goethe's "Sorrows of Werther." 3. The allusion is a comparison between the god of beauty and the dwarf in the Nibelungenlied. 4. Gottfried Wilhelm Von Leibnitz, (1646-1716), was a German philosopher and mathematician—inventor of differential and integral calculus and discoverer of doctrine of monads and preestablished harmony. 5. Herschel, Sir William, (1738-1822), and Sir John Frederick William, (1792-1871), are the two pioneers of modern astronomical science. 6. Gauss, (1777-1855), is noted for his discoveries in mathematics and astronomy. Schlegel, August Wilhelm von (1767-1845), and Karl Friedrich Wilhelm von, (1772-1839), noted German poets, authors and critics.



## NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES

"Won't somebody suggest a few good Christmas stories," asked an Illinois member, as the Round Table audience settled down to work. It was a large gathering in spite of the howling blizzard which seemed disposed to enter whether or no. Pendagon in reply pointed to a pile of books on the table. "You see we are ready for you," he laughed. "There must be some telepathy at work somewhere for these books represent spontaneous offerings on the part of half a dozen of our number. But let us have suggestions from the Table Round."

"The book on top is my contribution," remarked a serene looking delegate from Vermont. "You will all recognize it, I am sure—Dickens' 'Christmas Stories' but especially, of course, the immortal 'Christmas Carol.' To me it's the greatest Christmas story ever written. We have read it in our family every Christmas for twenty years, and my boys and girls know it almost by heart. The reading of the Carol is one of our great treats a few days before Christmas. I think it helps wonderfully to get us into the Christmas spirit."

"Yes," agreed her neighbor, a high school principal, "and I want to add if you'll allow me, that in our school we notice the difference between the children in whose homes Christmas simply means 'getting' and in those where the 'giving' spirit is emphasized. I tried last year," he continued, "having some of the older children read selections from Riis' 'Children of the Tenements' and we cut out the illustra-

tions, which are very attractive, and had them mounted for school room decoration. You'll find the article in an old number of the *Century Magazine*, volume XXXIII: 163. Will you let me ask this member from Virginia about Thomas Nelson Page's stories? I know he has written several but I can't recall their names."

"One of my favorites," rejoined the lady from Virginia, "is 'How the Captain Made Christmas.' It is published in the collection called 'The Burial of the Guns,' but you'll find it is in a Christmas *Scribner*, I think, for December, 1903. Then he has some other charming things—'A Captured Santa Claus,' 'Santa Claus' Partner' and 'Polly—a Christmas Recollection.' But do let me add to this list one of my particular favorites and that is, Howells' jolly little story called 'Christmas Every Day in the Year,' in a volume with that title. I read it to some, I fear, rather pampered nieces and nephews of mine and they saw the point very quickly. It is in Howells' brightest vein and quite as entertaining to older people as to young children."



"The Southland is responsible for some other good stories," commented Pendragon as he investigated the books on the table. "Ruth McNery Stuart has 'George Washington Jones' Christmas' and 'Solomon Crow's Pockets,' and lovers of Colonel Carter, of

Cartersville, enjoyed hugely last winter 'Colonel Carter's Christmas.' Many of you are familiar with another class of stories, those by Henry Van Dyke—'The Lost Word,' 'The First Christmas Tree,' and 'The Story of the Other Wise Man.' Of course, Mrs. Wiggin's 'The Birds' Christmas Carol' is a classic."

"Don't close the list please," put in a settlement worker from the West, "without mentioning Dr. Hale's inimitable tales. He has the most marvelous way of telling stories in which people that need things and people that have them to give seem to find each other. Whether it's clothes or ideas or nursing or sleigh rides or what not. I used to think them fantastic though delightful, but I've discovered that they are truer than I suspected. In a settlement we get trained to finding connections between things. I might mention 'Our Christmas in a Palace,' 'Christmas in Narragansett,' ten stories entitled 'Christmas Eve and Christmas Day' and 'Christmas Waits in Boston.' Some of them are in cheap form. Any book dealer can look them up for you."



"You'll notice our list of new circles is growing long," remarked Pendragon, as he held up a succession of sheets of paper pasted together in Japanese fashion. Let me remind both new and old members that we want to hear from you all. We haven't opportunity to give place to every one at the Round Table, but we hope to hear from a good many. Practice the art of making a good report—tell us the live and distinctive things that you do. Let us bring out the varied activities of our circles as much as possible."

"Now I must introduce the secretary of the Benton Harbor, Mich., Alumni who represents a very wide awake graduate organization."

"We are using THE CHAUTAUQUAN as the basis of our work," Mrs. Falkingham, the secretary, replied, "and do a good deal of supplementary reading which gives added value to our programs. We had a returned soldier from the Philippines last year to give us 'local color' on the Philippine Reading Journey, and in the spring we observed Shakespeare Day, giving special study to 'The Merchant of Venice.' We had a fine debate on the ever fascinating problem of Shylock and realized something of the matchless ability of the great bard who could produce such a character. We have joined the Federation of Women's Clubs, as our members chance to be women only. We presented our public school with a beautiful picture and we are pledged to help support our local hospital. So you see we make the con-

nection between study and activity as close as we can."

"It is good news to find our graduates taking this attitude." Pendragon opened a letter as he added: "Here is another item of interest—the Jamaica, N. Y., Alumnae who have been pursuing graduate work for some years, are planning for special work in Sociology this winter. We congratulate them."

"I believe you ought to congratulate us likewise," interposed the secretary of the Vincent C. L. S. C. of Baxter Springs, Kansas. "We sent four graduates to the Carthage Assembly last year and our S. H. G. gave them a reception and supper at one of the hotels in July. The S. H. G. also arranged with the local library to have a special place easy of access for Chautauqua books and magazines. In our Vincent Circle we use the suggestive programs quite extensively. We debated the Chinese exclusion law and ever so many other questions of national interest and gave a practical twist to one of our meetings by discussing 'What Shall We Do in Our City.' We may tell you some day."

"It's inspiring to us new members to hear from these older ones, and my circle of fourteen members at Sherman, New York, is hoping to make a record, as the athletes say. We are so near to Chautauqua that we ought to do at least as well as circles in Kansas and Michigan. Have you any suggestions for us?" Thus spoke a member of the class of 1908.

A tall delegate from Ohio smiled compassionately at this outburst of enthusiasm and nodded his head impressively as he replied, "One of the best rules is, 'to exercise your gray matter.' All the suggestions in the world won't help unless you work them over to fit your own case. It's the great law of individuality that asserts itself, but I'm not giving a lecture and if you take all the suggestions that Chautauqua gives and thoroughly adapt them, you'll make a glorious success of your circle. *Bon voyage!*"



"I believe this is rather an opportune time to read this letter from our graduate member at Alaminos, in the Philippines," said Pendragon. "Mr. Butler certainly has had to 'adapt himself' as you say, but he has done it and enlisted a fellow teacher besides. I quote from his letter, and you will be interested to see this cottage where his Chautauqua books, and diploma found him, and the school where he teaches."

"My station is in a section smiled on by nature—mountains, rivers, groves of palms, clumps of bamboo and trees of hardier growth

make scenes of ever changing beauty. As the government required only five hours a day, I planned to do much more study than my C. L. S. C. readings demanded. But instead I have frequently taught nine or ten hours a day, for the enthusiasm of my pupils made it necessary. Over four hundred children and one hundred adults are in constant attendance. I have five Filipino assistants who were formerly my pupils. Long before time for school to open, children tramp in from the country with their books tied up in handkerchiefs as carefully as if they were things of life. The American school book is a treasure compared with the text-books heretofore in use. The more pictures there are in a book, the better. I began to use magazine pictures to decorate my school room, but they turned out to be good supplementary matter for recitations. Those which pertained to the industries were of great assistance. The results have astonished me. A number of my pupils are in the Insular Normal or provincial high schools and the department has authorized a grammar school course. When it is remembered that this is only one of a thousand places where American teachers are breaking a new day one may imagine what the Department of Public Instruction is doing."



Pedragon next introduced the delegate from Ft. Dodge, Iowa, who said, "Our circle membership is fifty and we are deeply interested, I can assure you. The racial question last year stirred up a good deal of interest among some of our readers and the 'Evolution of Industrial Society' caused many impromptu discussions, especially among the men. The women in particular were interested in American Sculpture, as many of us belong to the local art club. Our most spirited debate was on the Russo-Japanese question when four of our brightest members were pitted against each other, and our most charming paper was on Sarah Orne Jewett. This was published in our local daily. Some of our members have gone farther west. One reports her 'reading done' from California and another from Colorado. We had a notable Mexican evening with members in costume representing different types. The more prominent ones had to make short speeches during the evening and between times we had Mexican music and a recitation, by our Aztec, of an original poem, 'The Aztec's Lament.' Our refreshments were most unique and as truly Mexican as they could be made. Our new year opens well and we hope for good work. We have money in our treasury after paying room rent, buying flowers for members who were ill, defraying the expenses of two picnics, etc. You see our activities are various but we feel that Chautauqua is giving us a wider outlook in many ways."

"I wonder," remarked a delegate from Aberdeen, Mississippi, "if the circles are still

interested in the Historical Man and Woman. One of our members got up a 'feast' for them as one of our club diversions and I will present it as our contribution to this Christmas Round Table."

"Just let me say," interposed Pendragon, "that I have letters from Warren, Pa., Covington, Kentucky, Toledo, Ohio, Carson Circle of Brooklyn, N. Y., Ravenswood, Ill., and many others in this sheaf of reports. You shall hear from them later. Now for Aberdeen:"

#### THE WEDDING FEAST

The "Historical Man" was first brought to our gaze,  
Then a composite "Woman" our minds to amaze;  
Next, was pictured the "Wedding" complete,  
But nothing was said of something to eat.  
So now, as a wind-up, our club, at the last,  
Will offer a unique wedding repast.

The first course was soup—that broth that was sold,

To a hungry man famous in annals of old.  
The fish was that one of apochryphal fame  
That drove off a devil when placed in a flame.  
The roast was of venison of such heavy cost  
That a man for it honor and blessing once lost.

For fowls, there was first a bird that in need

A famous old dame sometimes used as a steed;  
And that beautiful fowl with many bright eyes,  
That watched over a god as his jealous queen's spies.

The vegetables, those thrown over a wall  
By a crazy man from whose lips did fall  
Many sentences tender of curious diction  
To bewilder a lady of Dickens' rare fiction.  
The olives were grown in a garden of note,  
Owned by a poet who sometimes in it wrote.  
For drinks, was that wine chosen in whimsical ways,

By a princely drunkard to end his days,  
And another thrown in rebellious fit  
Into water, with anger as well as wit.  
For dessert there was served a convent-baked pie

In which peeping eyes valuable deeds did espy,

When a thieving carrier put in his thumb,  
And gave rise to the story of Jack Horner's plum.

Fruits there made a goodly show  
To be easily guessed by you we know.  
First, that orange of fabulous worth  
Brought by a hero again back to earth.  
And the apples used to win in a race  
Same fruit once given "to the fairest" face.  
The nuts once opened the gates of a city  
To an army that entered without any pity.  
And the raisins were made of grapes of great size,

Once carried on the shoulders of cowardly spies.

Dinner being over the men all repair  
To refresh themselves in the open air.  
With a weed that caused a stupid soul  
To deluge his master with soup from a bowl.



ESSAYS FOR THE DAY. By Theodore T. Munger. 5x7½. \$1.00 net. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A series of papers suited to the thought of the day. The key note of the book is given in the second essay, which is called "The Interplay of Christian Literature." A paper of much significance to church goers is that on "The Church." There is also an illustrated study of Horace Bushnell, a striking commentary on "The Scarlet Letter," and a brief suggestive paper entitled "A Cock to Esculapius." Dr. Munger's "On the Threshold," "The Freedom of Faith," and his services for many years as pastor of the United Church on the Green at New Haven, have made him distinguished among American men and authors.

J. M. B.

THE EVOLUTION OF IMMORTALITY. By S. D. McConnell. \$1.25. 5x7½. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Dr. McConnell seeks by the modern Searchlight of Evolution to newly interpret the ever-present and anxious question "If man die shall he live again"? He turns the light anew on old terms of expression, such as "I believe in the resurrection of the body." The light reveals again the distinction between instinct and mind, mind and matter, soul and body, man and beast, man and man, until moral consciousness is reached. There alone is fitness found to survive. Goodness is immortality. Goodness is nowhere that Christ is not. So that Christ bringing immortality to light could immortalize Abram as John or Paul, for "before Abram was I am," said Christ. In fine, is man immortal or immortable? The author maintains the latter. Man's immortality is not innate, is not in ordinances or sacraments, but in knowing God which is eternal life; by new spiritual birth; by Jesus Christ who manifests God is the flesh; by his spirit that has gone out through all the world. Christ's Teachings concerning the resurrection to those who did not believe in it as those who did, the author presents at length, and he also reviews the teachings of his disciples after Christ's resurrection. The nature of Christ's resurrection body; the natural and spiritual body; the question, Is there anything in spiritualism, hypnotism, wireless telegraphy, Christian Science to explain communication, communion or exist-

ence of spirit beyond the grave, are topics suggestively treated in the volume. The author's light of evolution confirms the fifteenth chapter of First Corinthians and leaves the Gospel of the Resurrection intact on the basis of moral consciousness.

J. M. B.

THE BEING WITH THE UPTURNED FACE. By Clarence Lathbury. New York: Funk & Wagnalls.

The author of "God Winning Us," "A Little Lower than the Angels," and "The Code of Joy," now offers, in his latest book, a beautiful and a convincing protest against the so-called "materialism of the age," and the animalism of man. Subtle in thought as are many of Mr. Lathbury's sentences, yet so poetic and so epigrammatic is their expression that it is difficult to conceive of the little volume as proving dull reading to any one. Not that all of Mr. Lathbury's views will find immediate acceptance. Some readers may feel at first that man is, according to the author, made to appear too "divine" a creature; but Chapter VI will effectively remove such an impression; and then, the adjective is not capitalized, and Mr. Lathbury is not a Christian Scientist. The character of the essay is brought out by the chapter-headings: The Touch of the Infinite, The Great Ellipsoid, The Immense Shadow of a Man, Man Partly Is, The Gods of the Hearth, Savages in Training for Angels, One Far-Off Divine Event, The Spiritualization of the Animal, Mankind One Coinage, The Thread on Which the Beads are Strung, The Descent of Love.

V. Van M. B.

THE RELIGION OF AN EDUCATED MAN. By Francis G. Peabody. 5x7½. \$1.00 net. New York: The Macmillan Company.

A delightful book in which the author in three lectures very forcefully discusses, first, the Relation of Religion and Education; second, The Message of Christ to the Scholar; third, Knowledge and Service. The author makes it very clear that religion and education are essentially consistent, coördinate, mutually confirmatory, fundamentally one. The teaching of Jesus Christ concerns itself with the relation of human life with the life of God, and with the principles of human duty among the life of men. The teaching is most pertinent to the scholar. The test of service in the modern



world is being made of the educated man. Just as much as of the man of wealth, we ask, What is he worth? What use is he in this work-a-day world? The age of service rightly understood is precisely the age when intellectual discipline and insight, power of expression and scientific habit of mind are needed as never before to direct and interpret the world. Any scholar will be greatly benefited by the careful perusal of this book. J. M. B.

**HOW TO DEAL WITH DOUBTS AND DOUBTERS.** By H. Clay Trumbull. 75 Cents. 4¼x6¾. New York: The International Committee of Young Men's Christian Associations.

A very helpful little book to all that are troubled in any way with doubts in their religious life. Long and rich experience in religious faith enables the author to meet and successfully answer troublesome questions that arise in the minds of many would-be sincere religious people. In fourteen chapters he deals with those who consider doubts rather than beliefs; those seeking help inside of self, not outside; those not ready to give up the selfwill; those waiting to be good enough to join the church; those facing the unpardonable sin; those waiting for something to break; those waiting for more faith; those enjoying God's service but in trouble as to acceptance; those considering their desires instead of God's love. Other chapter titles read: Is lack of right feeling a barrier to right action? Troubled because finding no enjoyment in prayer; Unable to believe in miracles; Not believing in any personal Spiritual Existence. The book ends by showing the inconsistency of Christian doubters; that man has more power through believing one thing than disbelieving ten thousand things. J. M. B.

**THE CHURCH AND YOUNG MEN.** By Frank Graves Cressey. \$1.25 net. 5x7¾. Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

A most thorough and painstaking review of the direct and indirect work of the church in reaching today the young men of America and leading them into the Kingdom of Christ. The value of the book is not in its statistics alone, which are the latest and most reliable, but in its full insight of the aims and methods of various organizations instituted by the church in this country to reach the unreached young men with social moral, industrial, educational and religious influences. The work accomplished in this direction is very great but the work yet to be done is still greater. The book appeals to every church member in this land to lend a helping hand. The book is a great inspiration to greater Christian endeavor in winning young men to Christ, the Savior of Men. J. M. B.

**FAMOUS MEN OF THE OLD TESTAMENT.** By Morton Bryan Wharton. 5x7½. \$1.50. New York: E. B. Treat & Co.

"Famous Men of the Old Testament," seventeen lectures, is a fit companion of "Famous Men of the New Testament," as well as "Famous Women of the Old and New Testaments," all works by the same author. He gathers the essential facts in the Biblical history of each character and weaves them into a story smooth, clear and attractive, so that the casual reader is drawn to them in such a way as to rivet the attention. The author in this book as well as in all his works has contributed greatly in bringing Bible men and women especially to the mind and heart of the young. J. M. B.

**SUNDAY SCHOOL AND CHAUTAUQUA BOOKLET.** Calendar of Daily Reading edited by Grace Leigh Duncan. 2¼x5¼. pp. 220. Paper, 25 cents. Syracuse, N. Y.: W. A. Duncan Co.

The edition of this attractive booklet for 1905 contains a Bible text and other quotations for each day of the year in addition to the list of Sunday School lessons and announcements of the Chautauqua work throughout the year. The Secretary of the International Lesson Committee writes the introduction. Bindings in choice of four colors. F. C. B.

**THE CAMBRIDGE MODERN HISTORY.** Edited by A. W. Ward, G. W. Prothero and Stanley Leathes. Vol. I, The Renaissance. 1902. pp. 807. \$3.75 net. Vol. II, The Reformation. 1904. pp. 857. \$4.00 net. New York: The Macmillan Co.

The Cambridge Modern History is a monumental work of a sort which only recent scholarship would have attempted. It recognizes that "the long conspiracy against the revelation of truth has given way" and that with the tremendous accumulation of new data made within the last few years has come the need for a judicious division of labor. The present day student no longer states all knowledge to be his province and when he wishes to construct a very great work he wisely calls in associates to help him. Thus the Cambridge Modern History was largely planned by the late Lord Acton, Regius Professor of Modern History at that University. To him is due, in its main features, the division of the work into the volumes and chapters of which it consists, and to the spirit of his design the distinguished group of collaborators are scrupulously adhering. The Renaissance, The Reformation, The United States of America, The French Revolution, Napoleon, are examples of the ideas, achievements and figures which are to give to each of the volumes a unity not of name

alone. For a striking feature of this history is to be that world movements rather than the limited story of any single national developments are to determine the order and arrangement of details. Thus in Vol. I, *The Renaissance*, seventeen eminent scholars collaborate; in Vol. II, *The Reformation*, twelve, several of whom do not contribute to the former. The result will be that a work will in time be completed such as no single man ever has or ever could produce.

The whole is written in fluent well turned style and is accompanied by extremely valuable bibliographies. P. W. B.

**NAPOLEON THE FIRST: A BIOGRAPHY.** By August Fournier. Translated by Margaret Bacon Corwin and Arthur Dart Bissell. Edited by Edward Gaylord Bourne, Professor of History in Yale University. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

The translation of this celebrated life of Napoleon will be welcomed by all who are interested in the career of the world's greatest general. Readers who dread in a Frenchman a vast amount of hero-worship, will be relieved to hear the author state "that there is not only a Napoleonic but also a Revolutionary legend which must needs be rejected . . . and be replaced by the truth without reserve." But the account is not lacking in the dramatic element. Careful readers will use the volume, of which the original was published in 1885, in connection with the recent American lives by Sloane and by Rose. The bibliography, revised and enlarged by Prof. Bourne, will be found peculiarly valuable. V. Van M. B.

**NAPOLEON: A SHORT BIOGRAPHY.** By R. M. Johnston. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. It takes one's breath away to learn that "the Napoleonic bibliography includes some 40,000 volumes," yet there is need for a short life everyone—unless he is a Bonaparte enthusiast—will agree, for the history of the Corsican campaigns and political methods is too vast and complex for the busy reader. Here we have an admirable account in large type,—an account that manages, for all its brevity, not to appear too much of an essence. The spirit of the historian—lately appointed to a Harvard lectureship—is calm and unbiased, and there is not an overplus of the military science which for most of us makes dull reading. What we are after, for the most part, is Napoleon the man, and in this book he is fairly presented, greatness, pettiness and all. V. Van M. B.

**JUST A LITTLE TAG.** By Elizabeth Lesser. Illustrated by the author. \$1.00. New York: Broadway Publishing Co.

The autobiography of a little girl, who, strange to relate, is neither literary, French, nor a genius.

Instead, she is an American, and the daughter of townspeople. There are many charming pieces of naïveté, and the naturalness of the account is successfully managed for the most part. Sissy, "The Little Tag" is, perhaps, too much concerned in the lovemaking of her elders. Thus she helps to consummate the marriage of her sister to Mr. Thompkins, and of Miss Thomkins with Dr. Pillsbury, to say nothing of bringing together Miss Thomkins and her long-lost brother. Sissy is another hospital child. Fortunately her lameness ends toward the close of the book. The father dies, the stepmother is mildly unfeeling (of course) and the maiden aunt is benign; but best of all is Miss Thomkins, who presumably adopts Sissy. This is a wholesome little story, but not sufficiently unusual and delicately wrought to rank highly among the memory-books of childhood. V. Van M. B.

**LAURA BRIDGMAN: DR. HOWE'S FAMOUS PUPIL AND WHAT HE TAUGHT HER.** By Maude Howe and Florence Howe Hall. Illustrated from drawings by John Elliott. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

That American Bayard, Dr. Howe, proved the depth of his Christian chivalry by turning from a romantic enlistment in the Greek army to the cause of a little child who lived, by reason of her being deaf, dumb, blind, and defective in the sense of smell, a life of incredible solitude. It may safely be said that the education of Laura Bridgman offered problems more difficult of solution than the campaigns of Greeks and Poles; and all the world knows what a marvelous microcosm she became under the influence of her great teacher. Yet since few of us are acquainted with the details of Laura's long and patient upbringing, we cannot but be grateful to the daughters of Dr. Howe for this volume, the work of their devotion. From being a sad little clod of a child, Laura Bridgman was metamorphosed into a beautiful, radiant creature, tremulously eager to learn and to be loved. To the end of time, she and her master will be revered as the earthly messengers of Him who opened the eyes of the blind. V. Van M. B.

**OUR OWN AND OTHER WORLDS.** By Joseph Hamilton. Introduction by Rev. W. H. Withrow, D. D., F. R. S. C. Illustrated. \$1.00. New York: Eaton & Mains. Cincinnati: Jennings & Graham.

Many of us who have sought entertainment and information in simplified astronomies written by celebrated star-gazers have become lost in a Milky Way of overwhelming pet theories and the involved use of the English language, but here is a small, unpretentious volume that may justly be said to illuminate

both mind and heart. We may never have heard of the author, but we shall eagerly look for his succeeding studies. The breathtaking distances, and the glorious, ineffable mysteries of the universe are made so real that we thrill with joy, and wonder, and awe. In addition, Mr. Hamilton's unassuming ability to knock a leg or so from the stools of the astronomical elect, gives us a wicked satisfaction. We never did believe in "Balls' burnt-out stars," anyway! The only fault with this book—so far as our unscientific judgment can determine—is a slight tendency to repetition, and the scantiness of illustration. V. Van M. B.

**CHARACTER READING.** By Mrs. Symes. Akron, O.: The Saalfeld Pub. Co.

The uninformed reader picks up a handbook of physiognomy or palmistry with a feeling of distrust. (How much our friends belie their looks!) But in this volume there are many paragraphs that appeal to common sense. Of course we are amused by a statement to the effect that "a very extravagant man cannot do better than select a wife with a well-defined hump on her nose," and like the author of "Three Men in a Boat," we are tempted to say, on closing the manual that we have every ailment except housemaid's knee, yet Mrs. Symes' epigrammatic sentences are helpful.

V. Van M. B.

**THE IMMORTALITY OF ANIMALS.** By E. D. Buckner. 5½x7¾. \$1.25 net. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.

Have animals souls? Some interesting discussion has been called forth and considerable agitation created by the assertion of President Angell, of the American Humane Education Society that the great scientist Agassiz firmly believed in the immortality of animals. The same idea appears in the investigations of other famous theorists and scientists. The question is very fully and ably discussed in the recent volume entitled "The Immortality of Animals." The reader whether he agrees with the author or not will find the arguments very strong and exceedingly well made. J. M. B.

**CONNECTIVES OF ENGLISH SPEECH.** By James C. Fernald. \$1.50. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co.

A study of the style of the masters of language reveals the debt they owe to the connectives of speech as a means of lucid expression. These connectives are the balances that give to other words their true weight and importance—the lights and shadows that reveal or obscure our ideas. Grammarians have left

much to be done to make clear their use, and the student has been left to dig out his own rules as best he could from his dictionary, or to refer to his not always too handy book of synonyms.

Mr. Fernald has done a lasting service to students and writers. He defines and illustrates the use of prepositions, conjunctions, relative pronouns and adverbs, giving us a volume of 324 pages, including an intelligible index. He devotes 192 pages to the preposition alone, the word "to" occupying fifteen pages. His method of treating this word shows the plan of the whole work: four general divisions are made, each of these being subdivided, with authoritative quotations to illustrate each case. Following this is a list of instances where "to" is not required.

Occasionally a word that one would like to find is lacking. "Aside from," "contrary to," "versus" and "whilst" are among these, but perhaps a later edition will gather them in. It is not, however, discrediting to the author to have made these omissions: the magnitude of the subject and the language—English, with its incongruities—would seem to make perfection impossible in a first effort. The author may, however, flatter himself that what he has given us will be appreciated. W. B. G.

**A MANUAL OF PRONUNCIATION.** By Otis Ashmore, Superintendent of Schools, Savannah, Georgia. List price 30 cents. Mailing price 35 cents. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Teachers and others who are especially interested in the use of good English and who are often perplexed by the changes in the pronunciation of seemingly familiar words, will welcome this very excellent manual which has recently been prepared by the Superintendent of Schools in Savannah, Ga. This little volume is so clearly arranged that the student can tell at a glance how many forms of a given word are permissible and then by easy reference to a clearly arranged key he will be able to find which authorities favor each pronunciation. Besides a large number of common words, about which the average person is often in doubt, the book contains a well selected list of geographical, biographical and classical names.

K. F. K.

**THE STUDY OF RHETORIC.** By Helen J. Robins and Agnes J. Perkins. pp. 315. 90 cents. New York: The Macmillan Co.

The study of rhetoric for the elementary student is well provided for in this book. A multitude of rules and prohibitions which should be practiced by all who wish to write.

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# The CHAUTAUQUAN

*A Magazine of  
Things Worth While*

CHANGES  
IN THE COMMON SCHOOL  
CURRICULUM

Walter L. Hervey

EVERGREENS  
Anna Botsford Comstock

SURVEY OF  
CIVIC BETTERMENT

TALK  
ABOUT BOOKS

HIGHWAYS AND BYWAYS  
Illustrated

ENGLAND AND THE INDUS-  
TRIAL REVOLUTION  
Frederic Austin Ogg

HAMBURG, KIEL AND  
LUBECK  
Wolf von Schierbrand

THE PLAY MOVEMENT IN  
GERMANY  
H. S. Curtis

BEETHOVEN AND HIS MUSIC  
Thomas Whitney Surette

PSYCHOLOGY AND SOCIAL  
WELFARE  
James Rowland Angell

# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

A Monthly Magazine of Things Worth While

*Official Publication of Chautauqua Institution*

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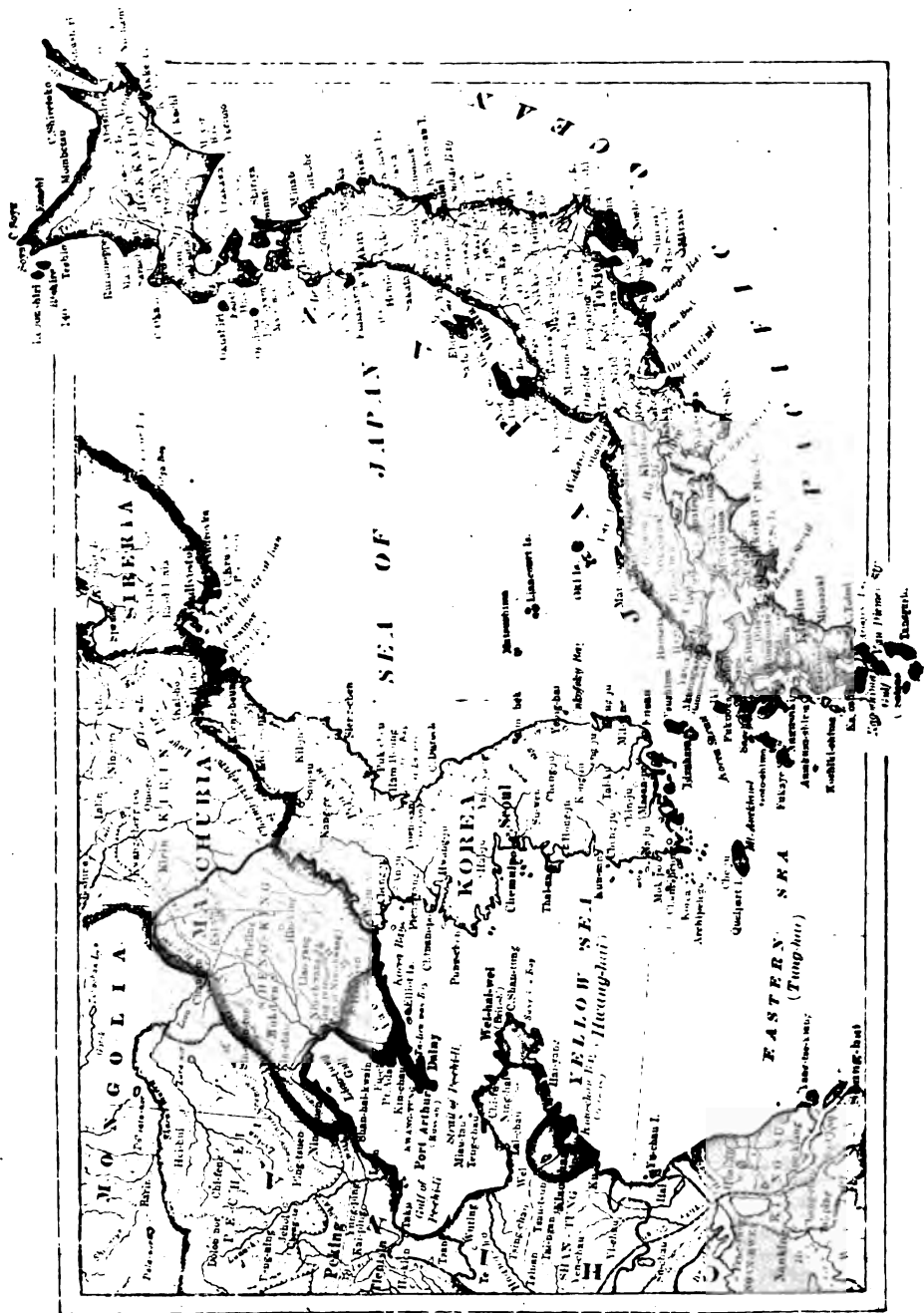
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MAP OF WAR ZONE IN THE FAR EAST

Showing the geographical and strategic position of the besieged Port Arthur.

# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

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**I**N the higher politics, the international event of the latter part of November was the Russian *zemstvos*. It is hoped and believed in progressive circles the world over that this remarkable meeting, the first of its kind ever held in Russia, may prove the beginning of constitutional government in that great but backward empire.

What are the *zemstvos*? Provincial and district (or county) councils, elective bodies, to which each class of society—the nobility, the middle class, and the peasantry—sends its quota of representatives. These bodies, theoretically speaking, have no political functions. They raise local rates and attend to public works, charity, sanitation and education. They have not been on good terms with the central bureaucracy and its agents in the provinces, and since the early eighties of the last century their activities have been steadily restricted. During the *Plehve* régime the *zemstvos* were treated with special harshness, and coöperation between any two or more of them for the most innocent purposes, such as relief of the wounded, was sternly prohibited. Leaders were exiled and punished for expressing liberal opinions or suggesting greater freedom of *zemstvo* activity. Any dissatisfaction with existing conditions was construed as sedition and treason. Some of *Plehve*'s followers did not hesitate to demand the abolition of these "dangerous" bodies.

When Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky succeeded *Plehve* as minister of the interior

he promptly announced a reversal of the reactionary policy toward the *zemstvos*. He pleaded for confidence between the people and the government and invited honest discussion of national needs. The conference of *zemstvo* presidents was an outcome of this change of attitude and it was fully expected that the gathering would be public and formal. The program prepared for the conference was non-political.

Under the influence of the implacable and Bourbon officials, however, the Tzar at the eleventh hour withdrew all official recognition from the conference. It was obliged to meet in secret in private residences. The newspapers were forbidden to publish any account of its proceedings or resolutions. It would have been prohibited entirely, it is presumed, had not Mirsky threatened to resign, and had not the Tzar felt that such an event, in the circumstances caused by the unpopular war with Japan, might produce serious consequences. The conference was thus held under Prince Mirsky's auspices and protection; indeed, he had to guarantee the delegates immunity from arrest and prosecution.

Once assembled, these representative men—leaders of the nobility, the spokesmen of the "best blood and culture of Russia," as they have been called—determined, before proceeding with the discussion of routine, administrative, local matters, to draw up a memorial to the Tzar setting forth the essential needs, wishes and aspirations of the nation. The

memorial, as summarized in foreign dispatches, that are not subject to the censoring process, is a very bold, significant, historic document. In effect, it informs the



GENERAL STOESEL  
Russian commander at Port  
Arthur.

absolutist government that Russia is drifting toward revolution and anarchy — calamities which can be averted only by conceding important reforms. The bureaucracy is severely criticized and held responsible for the want of sympathy and good will between the Tzar and nation. Among the recommendations made are:

Extension of local autonomy.

Personal security of the subject, and due process of law for all; no trials except by constitutional tribunals and under fixed forms; no administrative exile.

Freedom of conscience and of speech and publication.

A system of national education.

Finally, the memorial expresses the hope that "it is the wish of the Tzar to convene a national assembly" to participate in legislation. This is a demand for a parliament, for a constitutional government.

The memorial voices the sentiments of the great majority of the people. "Sympathetic demonstrations" have been held in many cities to express agreement with the contents of the document. The reactionary elements are bewildered, but it is impossible for them to dispute the fact that the nation has condemned the autocracy and approved the liberal, progressive program. They will not surrender, and the Tzar, who is a weak and irresolute man, will have to decide definitely which side to follow. Russia is on the eve of a great internal crisis. Disregard of the zemstvo warning and appeal will be a signal for the revival of violence and

terrorism. Concessions and compromise, on the other hand, will usher in a new era and sound the knell of autocracy.



## Victories for World Peace

The closing of the North Sea "incident" without a rupture between Great Britain and Russia is a source of keen satisfaction to all lovers of peace and international amity. The jingo press and the unscrupulous politicians of both countries were aggressive and eager for war. The tact and coolness of the higher officials fortunately proved equal to the emergency, and the agreement to refer the issue to an international tribunal under the rules of The Hague convention insures a happy solution of the difficulty.

By the terms of this agreement, the commission must determine, on the evidence presented to it by the contending parties, whether or not the firing by the Baltic fleet on the trawlers was the result of a blunder, or whether there actually were torpedo boats, or any craft that intended any attack on the Russian ships. The inquiry at Hull by the British Board of Trade (a department of the government) developed no evidence indicating the presence of any Japanese war vessels in the North Sea at the time of the tragedy, and the probability is that the international commission will reach a verdict at once adverse and humiliating to Russia.

In that event, the commission will have to fix the responsibility for the blunder, the punishment of the guilty officers being left to Russia herself. The commission consists of five naval officers of high rank, Great Britain and Russia having one member each, the others representing neutral nations. The impartiality of its verdict is a foregone conclusion.

The second victory for international peace is found in the new strength and momentum acquired by the arbitration movement. Since the Anglo-French treaty was signed several other similar

conventions have been concluded, and more are in process of negotiation. All the great European powers, the United States, Mexico, and even Central and South America are interested in this movement. These treaties will not do away with war, for questions of honor and sovereignty and integrity are distinctly excluded, but they cannot fail to diminish friction and misunderstanding, and to prevent minor controversies, at any rate, from becoming causes (or pretexts) of war.

Finally it is to be recorded with pleasure that President Roosevelt's call for a second Hague conference has been favorably responded to by most of the important powers. In principle, even France, Russia's ally, indorses the suggestion. The time and place of the gathering have not been fixed, and may not be until after the Russo-Japanese war, for the questions named for discussion—the duties of neutrals, the coaling of belligerent fleets, contraband, etc.—have repeatedly arisen in the course of this conflict. Whenever held, the conference will assuredly mark another stride toward the goal of civilization, the supremacy of industrialism.



### Future of the Parties

What are the lessons of the November elections, and what are the likely effects of the overwhelming Roosevelt-Republican victory on the future of American politics? Ex-Judge Parker, Mr. Bryan,



IN FULL COMMAND

—From the *Cleveland Plain Dealer*.

Mr. Watson, and other leaders have been discussing this question, and the press, naturally, has paid it considerable attention. The general feeling is that the Democratic party must be reorganized again and provided with a positive and significant platform. Mr. Parker believes that the great issue of the future for the party will be the abolition of the "vicious tariff-fed trusts and illegal monopolies" whose money, he thinks, controls national elections. Mr. Bryan declares that the party must put away opportunism and half-measures and become bold and radical. To quote a long address which he issued after the elections:

The Democratic party if it hopes to win success, must take the side of the plain, common people. . . . The election has opened the eyes of the hundreds and thousands of honest and well-meaning Democrats who a few months ago favored the reorganization of the party. These men now see that they must either go into the Republican party or join with the Democrats of the West and South in making the Democratic party a positive, aggressive and progressive reform organization. There is no middle ground.

Mr. Bryan would not abandon any of the issues for which the party has stood—tariff revision, anti-imperialism, economy, etc.—but he would add the following "planks" which he believes to be needful and desirable: State ownership of railways, the postal telegraph system, the election of federal judges for fixed terms and the election of postmasters by the people.

This platform is described, in the press, as Populistic, yet even the conservative papers, including Republican organs of stalwart affiliations, recognize that the Democratic party must make itself the mouthpiece of the radical sentiment of the country. Mr. Watson, the Populist candidate, hastens to assert, however, from his point of view, that this cannot be realized, because the Bryan elements are not strong enough to prevail over and "drive out" the Cleveland-Parker element. The party, according to Mr. Wat-

son, is politically dead, and Populism will absorb all that is sound in it. Mr. Watson says this about the future:

My own plans for the future embrace a



ALVA ADAMS  
Governor-elect of  
Colorado.

complete organization of the people along the lines of Jeffersonian Democracy, the re-establishment of reform papers, and a systematic propaganda of Jeffersonian principles, in order that in 1908 there shall be a party of genuine opposition to the Republican party and its present policies. . . .

Mr. Bryan has no substantial reasons for believing that he can ever get the national Democratic party to adopt the Populist program which he has just formulated. The Democratic party never did it, and the assumption is that it never will.

It is not likely that any serious "re-organization" work will be attempted in the near future. Democratic leaders will hold conferences and discuss the situation, but the actual course of the party as a whole will necessarily depend on the "logic of events."

Especially will it depend on the policies of the triumphant party. The Republicans realize that in the very completeness of their victory there lurks danger. With control there goes responsibility. The people, it is recognized, did not vote for the *status quo*, for a do-nothing policy. They expect the Republicans to wrestle with the tariff, trust, railroad and other questions. They expect a revision of the Dingley act, reciprocity with Canada and other countries, and prosecution of all illegal monopolies. "There is a rising tide of radicalism in the country," say the Republican papers, and the Roosevelt administration must check it by responding to the demand for needed reforms.

Already the politicians are considering the expediency of a special session of the new Congress next spring for the purpose of moderate tariff legislation. It is understood that the "short session" of the present Congress will attempt nothing in this direction. Of additional anti-trust legislation nothing is said, but there are rumors of government suits against certain trusts under existing law. In short, the perplexities and misgivings are not all on the Democratic side.



### Socialistic and Labor Vote

It is an accepted view that there is no such thing as a "labor vote" in American national and state elections. The trade unions are not "in politics," and they do not formally commit themselves to any party. Were an attempt made to carry politics into the unions, disruption would follow—so the argument runs—for workmen, like all other bodies of citizens, are divided on such questions as the tariff, foreign policy, expansion, trusts, etc.

There is much truth in this position, but less than there once was. Labor is gradually asserting itself in politics as an independent and separate factor, as an element conscious of its special interest. It does this quietly, on election day rather than in meetings and resolutions, and it is a serious question whether it will not soon change its tactics, and, like the British unions, frankly form a political party.

In the recent general elections, it is recognized, the labor vote played a very important part. It elected a Democrat governor of Massachusetts by a plurality of 35,000 when the national Republican ticket had a plurality of over 85,000. Mr. Douglas, the successful candidate, made his canvass on the tariff-reform and reciprocity issue chiefly, but it is not this to which he owes his election. Rather does he owe it to the support of organized labor. He is a leading shoe manufacturer who has been on excellent terms with the

unions, and workingmen of all parties, including Socialists, voted for him.

In Colorado it was the labor vote which defeated Governor Peabody and elected Mr. Adams, while in New York City, it is asserted, thousands of labor votes were cast against the national and state tickets on account of the activity of certain unpopular employers and heads of corporations in their behalf. Will not, it is asked, manifestations like these gradually lead to more direct political action by organized labor?

The union leaders adhere to the view that such action would do more harm than good. In his annual report to the American Federation of Labor, Mr. Gompers reiterated the negative advice he had so often given before. Yet the tendency

seems to be in the opposite direction.

There is, however, no reason for thinking that labor is drifting into Socialism. The gains of the party, whose candidate was Eugene V.

Debs, were extraordinary, especially in Illinois, Ohio, Wisconsin and New York. It polled over 500,000 votes—an increase of over 600 per cent compared with the Debs vote of 1900; but the most competent students of the situation are inclined to believe that this is a temporary and accidental phenomenon.

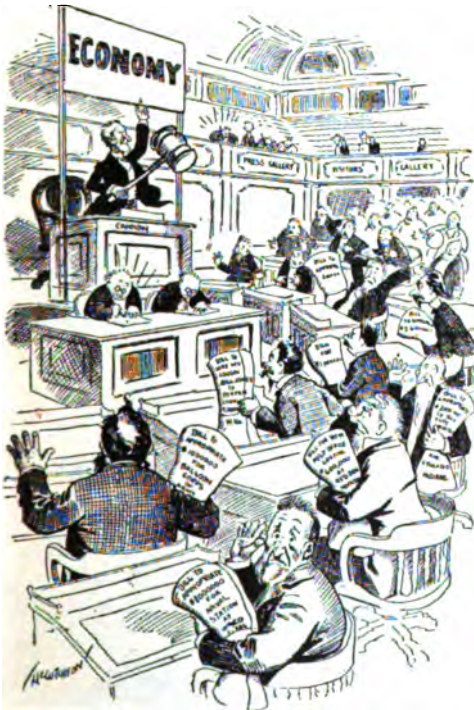
It is supposed that many Democratic and Republican workmen voted for Mr. Debs because, Populism having disappeared as a factor, that was the only mode of registering their protest against the policies of the dominant parties. That they accept the Socialist doctrine and program is not regarded as a necessary or even reasonable inference.

The view which the Socialists themselves take of their gains is well expressed in this extract from an editorial of the New York organ of the party:

Yet we may express a certain satisfaction in the overwhelming defeat of the Democratic party when it is accompanied by an unprecedented increase in the Socialist vote, inasmuch as it brings nearer a clear drawing of the lines between the one party of capitalism on the one side and the one party of socialism on the other. The Democratic party does not know where it stands. It tries to stand on both sides, on all sides and in the middle at once, and it deserves to die. Henceforth, in spite of the efforts to galvanize this corpse into life, we may recognize that the issue is clearly drawn between Republicanism and Socialism, and in that clear drawing of the issue we rejoice.



JAMES H. PEABODY  
Contesting governorship of Colorado.



SPEAKER CANNON IS GOING TO INTRODUCE  
A NEW WORD IN CONGRESS

The startled members have appropriation bills for "balloon corps of army," "naval station at Waco, Texas," "postoffice at Red Dog, Nevada," "my cousin to deepen Coon creek," "to buy typewriters for educated Indians," etc., ranging from \$8,000,000 to nothing less than \$100,000.

—From the Chicago Tribune.

## Reform Through Referendum

Popular indifference to measures and propositions not closely identified with striking personalities is a ground often



JOHN A. JOHNSON  
New governor of  
Minnesota.

advanced against the wider application of the referendum. It is true that it is not easy to secure, by means of the referendum, reforms to which little attention is given in the press, and it is true that even important constitutional amendments have failed of approval because of the neglect of the voters to mark their ballots with refer-

ence to them. Still the late elections showed that it is not impossible to arouse general interest in measures of popular opinion.

In Wisconsin the people decisively approved a law for "direct primaries"—that is, for the nomination by the voters at the primary elections of all state, county and local officials. Gov. La Follette has for years vigorously advocated this law, but his enemies in his own party have successfully resisted his efforts—till now. The popular vote gives Wisconsin the most complete and radical direct primary election act ever drawn in the United States. The convention is rendered totally unnecessary, though parties may, if they choose, hold them to ratify the selections of the voters, and provide platforms. Each candidate for an office will have to appeal to the voters and submit his claim or title to the coveted distinction. It will be made easier to fight bossism and machine tyranny, and minorities will have a chance.

In Illinois there were no fewer than distinct propositions to vote for at ember elections. Not one failed

for want of attention, and none was rejected. Omitting those that were of purely local interest, the people of Illinois voted for the following propositions:

1. A constitutional amendment enabling the legislature to give Chicago a new charter, her present charter being antiquated and inadequate and productive of manifold evils.

2. For a law permitting "home rule in taxation"—that is, empowering any city, town, etc., to raise its revenue in its own way, on condition of contributing its proper share to the state revenue.

3. For a general referendum law applicable to all legislation.

4. For a direct primary, and nominations of candidates by the voters.

The last three propositions were "academic." They were submitted under the state public policy act which provides for the reference of measures proposed by a certain number of qualified voters in order to ascertain the opinion of the majority thereon. The legislature is not bound to give the popular recommendations thus obtained legal effect in the form of legislation. But knowledge of popular sentiment and desire is not amiss to any honest



CONGRESS WILL TAKE UP TARIFF REVISION

—From the Chicago Record-Herald.



legislator. The referendum and direct nominations bid fair to become the most prominent topic of political discussion in the United States.

Los Angeles is experimenting with another application of the principle of the referendum, under the provision of a new charter whereby, upon petition of twenty-five per cent of the voters, at the last previous election, any city officer may be "recalled" through a special election which the city council must call. One councilman has thus been "recalled" by the voters in his ward, on account of the passage of a much criticized contract for printing. Press reports show public approval of the new law and it is understood that its constitutionality can now be tested.

### A National Postal Telegraph

The current discussion of municipal, state, and national ownership of "natural" monopolies, as the alternative to the abuses of corporate monopoly, lends special interest to the striking presentation by an Australian barrister and ex-official of the facts with regard to the postal telegraph system of the country.

Australia has 48,000 miles of telegraph lines. The commonwealth owns them all, having taken them over, along with the postal service, after federation had been effected. The telegraph stations number 3,000—one for every 1,300 inhabitants. The rate for messages is as follows: 12 cents for 16 words in town or suburban service, 18 cents for the same number of words to any point within the same state, and 24 cents for a message to any part of the federation. The statistics show that two and a half messages a year are, on the average, transmitted for every inhabitant.

Turn to the United States, whose area is practically equal to that of Australia. We have one station for every 3,000 inhabitants, and our wires carry one message a year per inhabitant. The rates are from two or three times as high. Yet the Americans are the most enterprising, alert and commercially progressive people in the world. Why do we yield precedence in telegraph service to a nation of 4,000,000 people born, as it were, yesterday?

The difference in favor of Australia is attributed by the writer of the article referred to, and by many American commentators, to the fact that the government there owns and operates the whole system. Not only is there great economy in combining the post-office and telegraph station and in administering the two services as one system, but the government is satisfied with the low return on the capital, 3 per cent interest on the cost. There is no stock watering and no "exploitation" of the patrons. A private monopoly necessarily charges higher rates than a



WILLIAM L. DOUGLAS  
New governor of  
Massachusetts.



TIME FOR TARIFF REVISION

G. O. P.—Mr. Tailor, I wish you would have the up-to-date creases put in my pants, they are getting very baggy at the knees.

—From the *Minneapolis Journal*.



public body does, profits being the only purpose in view. Many private monopolies charge "what the traffic will bear," regardless even of their own ultimate interest.



FRANCIS E. LEUPP  
Recently appointed  
Indian Commissioner.

There may be evils in the Australian system which its friends have not disclosed, and it is doubtless rash to base on the data at hand a plea for a government postal-system in this country. It is obvious, however, that the experience of "Newest England" is worthy of sympathetic study and attention.

### Lynching and Federal Law

An interesting and remarkable theory in regard to the suppression of lynching, or at least lynchings of a certain kind, has been promulgated by Judge Thomas G. Jones, federal circuit judge for Alabama. Judge Jones is a Southerner and a Democrat, and presumably a strong upholder of state rights; coming from him, therefore, the theory is considered to be peculiarly significant.

It has been generally assumed that the federal government has no jurisdiction of lynching cases. In the eye of the law, the lynching of any man is murder, and what has the federal government to do with a murder committed in any state? Can Congress punish one Alabama citizen for a crime against another Alabama citizen, no federal question being involved? It will be remembered that in the case of the Italians lynched several years ago at New Orleans, the United States government, in answering a protest from Rome, pointed out that it had no power to interfere in the affair, or to dictate to the state of Louisiana any particular course or policy in the premises.

Judge Jones takes the position that in all reasoning of this purport an important distinction has been overlooked. When a criminal or a man suspected of crime is lynched or maltreated because of his alleged crime, and the assault upon him is inspired by revenge or hatred of *the crime*, or even of him *as a criminal*, the matter concerns the state alone, and federal grand juries, judges or executive officials have no authority to deal with it in any manner. But when a criminal or alleged criminal is killed, maimed, injured or maltreated not because of the crime, but because of his particular race, color or previous condition of servitude; if, in other words, the action of the mob is due to race hatred or race prejudice, then the federal government may and should assume jurisdiction. The power to interfere in such cases is conferred by the thirteenth and fourteenth amendments and by the statutory enactments of Congress designed to give these constitutional provisions force and vitality. The Thirteenth Amendment expressly dealt with races; it created rights which had not been legally recognized before; it conferred freedom and contemplated appropriate statutory legislation to secure that freedom. The Fourteenth Amendment guaranteed equal protection of the laws and due process of law to all citizens. This amendment is addressed to the states, not to individuals, but has not Congress power to provide for the punishment of individuals who resist a state and prevent it from performing its duty under the amendment?

Judge Jones holds that this power exists, and that when a mob deprives a state of the power to enforce the amendment the federal authorities may indict and, upon conviction, punish the members of the mob. He concludes that when a colored man is lynched under circumstances which indicate that a white man, accused of the same crime, would not have been lynched, the federal government has jurisdiction.

This doctrine could be applied to other cases, including the lawless deportations of Colorado, provided men were deported under the influence of prejudice against the class or condition to which they belonged. It would be interesting to know the opinion of the Supreme Court of this novel distinction.



## Complaints against the Liquor Dispensary

No experiment in connection with the effort to find some practical solution of the liquor problem has attracted more attention than the South Carolina liquor dispensary system, which was adopted under Governor Tillman, its chief advocate.

This system was a compromise between prohibition and license. In principle there is no difference between high license and low license, and even from the expediency point of view temperance reformers do not feel that high license sufficiently restricts the sale of intoxicating beverages. The state liquor dispensary offered itself as a golden mean between prohibition and insufficient regulation. The state buys liquor and sells it at various places under proper labels, the profits going into the school fund or for some other public purpose, and no private person is allowed to deal in spirits and intoxicants.

The dispensaries were established in South Carolina some six years ago. At first there was much opposition to the system, but gradually it was acquiesced in, and the country was led to suppose that it was justified by its fruits. It appears, however, that it is again unpopular, and that one county, Cherokee, voted on it and by a majority of about 6 to 1 condemned the dispensary.

According to some leading newspapers of the state, there is much corruption in the management of these institutions and in the relations between the state agents in charge and the dealers or their salesmen and drummers. There is, too, not a little illicit selling in the larger cities.

Senator Tillman said in one of his speeches in defense of the system: "If the dispensary cannot be lifted out of the fog of suspicion which hangs over it, I am for killing it." He believes, however, that the law can be so amended as to make wrongdoing and abuse under it inconsiderable. He would permit the sale of beer by private persons, and would have an elective board of control to supervise the state's liquor traffic.

The law has been revised more than once, it is stated and may be revised again.

There is no probability of its immediate repeal though public opinion leans more decidedly than ever toward complete local option—that is, toward legislation allowing the citizens of any community to choose between prohibition, any kind of license and the dispensary. Perhaps the last-named plan would be more promising if the federal Supreme Court had not held that liquor may be imported for private consumption into South Carolina in "original packages" in spite of the law. As a temperance measure the law was greatly weakened by the decision.



## An Important Boycott Case

The Supreme Court of the United States recently affirmed the decision of the highest court of Wisconsin in a case involving the question of the right of boycotting in one of its milder forms. At the time the Northern Securities suit was decided, many thought that the opinions of the justices indicated a strong tendency to modify the court's drastic construction of



W. MURRAY CRANE  
Successor to  
George F. Hoar,  
Massachusetts.

the anti-trust law in favor of corporate freedom to form combinations in partial or *reasonable* restraint of trade and competition; and the significance of the decision in the Wisconsin case lies in the evidence it affords that no such disposition really exists, and that anti-restraint of trade and anti-monopoly laws are interpreted as they were years ago.

Three Milwaukee newspapers had formed a business combination against a fourth paper, a common competitor, that had seen fit to raise its advertising rates. They had agreed that, if any person should consent to pay the higher rates of their competitor, he should not be permitted to advertise in their respective pages except at a corresponding advance of the rates, while any advertiser who should refuse to pay the increased rate of the same competing newspaper, should be allowed to use their space at the regular rates.

The effect of this was to injure the business of the common competitor and make it unprofitable for advertisers to use its columns. It amounted to an indirect boycott of that paper. Was the agreement a legitimate one? There is a statute in Wisconsin imposing fine or imprisonment on any two or more persons who "combine for the purpose of wilfully or maliciously injuring another in his reputation, trade, business or profession by any means whatever." It is plain that the newspaper agreement set forth above was a violation of this act, and the state courts so held. Before the Supreme Court of the United States it was argued, however, that the statute was in conflict with the Fourteenth Amendment and a denial of the right of liberty and property (business being a property right) without due process of law. Legislatures, it was contended, had not the power to punish combinations for the purpose of "wilfully," but not maliciously, injuring a compet-

itor in the course of trade, the motive being personal interest or benefit.

The Supreme Court held, however, that the Fourteenth Amendment was not intended to preserve the freedom to combine to inflict injury upon business or reputation, and that the states might prohibit such combinations, even when not malicious in the strict sense of the term. The decision seems to be a blow at commercial boycotting in general and at many forms of injury in "the course of trade" which have been deemed legitimate.



STATUE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT

Presented to the United States by Emperor William of Germany. Unveiled at Washington, November 19, in front of the new American War College. A replica in bronze (heroic size, standing more than seven feet, on granite pedestal) of original statue by Uphues at Emperor's palace, Potsdam.

## Church and State in Italy

Parliamentary elections were held in Italy in the first week of November. The government was forced to appeal to the country, the parties of the left—the Socialists, Radicals and Republicans having, by obstruction and otherwise, brought about a condition of legislative paralysis. The Giolitti ministry, which is Liberal, had maintained friendly relations with the left, but after the general strike against government interference in industrial controversies, and the disorder and violence which attended it in several cities, the premier found it necessary to break with his radical allies and make an appeal to all conservative classes in behalf of law and order and national tranquility.

Primarily, the appeal was addressed to the loyal Catholics, the firm champions of the temporal claims of the Pope. It is known, of course, that since the establishment of Italian unity the Vatican has prohibited its supporters from voting or otherwise participating in the political affairs of the country. The government and parliament have thus been "boycotted" by the Catholics, and there has been no clerical party in the kingdom, though in every other country of Continental Europe, not excepting the strongholds of Protestantism, there are strong clerical parties. As a result of this Catholic abstention, the liberal and radical groups or factions exert far greater influence than their respective strength and numbers would give them under normal political conditions. Indeed, the whole political situation in Italy is chaotic in the extreme.

In the late elections, for the first time in the history of United Italy, conservative Catholics voted in certain localities for ministerial candidates, and in two districts clerical candidates were successful. The Pope had refused to recall the veto order of his predecessors, but it was understood that the boycott of the Quirinal

was no longer so rigid as heretofore. The Vatican desired to aid the forces of conservatism in their conflict with those of radicalism, socialism and free thought, and in a quiet way the bishops encouraged voting for ministerial candidates.

This is the most noteworthy feature of the election. It is believed to argue a gradual *rapprochement* between the church and the state, and in a few years a strong clerical party may hold the balance of power in the Italian parliament. Aside from this, there has been no important changes in the situation. The govern-



SAMUEL GOMPERS  
Reëlected president  
American Federation  
of Labor.

ment of Giolitti, mildly liberal, has increased its following somewhat, while the Socialists have lost 27 seats. They are still formidable, however, and the victory of the ministry is not decisive. It may find the task of government as difficult as before. One of its promises calls for the nationalization of the railroads—a plan opposed by the conservatives. A reduction of military and naval expenditures, while needed, is unlikely.



## Industry and the World's Savings

A statement published by the Department of Commerce and Labor furnishes interesting data concerning the savings banks and the thrift of the leading nations. It appears that we contribute nearly three times our natural quota of the deposits recorded. The deposits per capita vary from \$96.41 for Denmark to 15 cents for Italy. The American per capita is \$37.38. The average deposits range from \$418

in the United States to \$5.48 in Japan. Here is the detailed exhibit:

	Depositors.	Total Deposits.
United States .....	7,305,443	\$3,060,178,611
Germany .....	15,432,211	2,273,406,226
United Kingdom ..	11,093,469	966,854,253
Austria .....	4,946,307	876,941,933
France .....	11,298,474	847,224,910
Italy .....	6,740,138	482,263,472
Russia .....	4,950,607	445,014,951
Hungary .....	1,717,515	432,810,515
Denmark .....	1,203,120	236,170,057
Switzerland .....	1,300,000	193,000,000
Australia .....	1,086,018	164,161,981
Sweden .....	1,892,586	151,480,442
Belgium .....	2,088,448	141,851,419
Norway .....	718,823	89,633,481
Holland .....	1,330,275	72,738,817
Canada .....	213,638	60,771,128
Japan .....	7,467,452	40,887,186
New Zealand .....	261,948	38,332,823
British India .....	866,693	34,650,371
Small British Cols.	354,275	32,936,217
Finland .....	226,894	21,144,278
Roumania .....	145,597	7,426,031

Grand Total .... 82,639,841 \$10,669,885,102

This table does not warrant positive conclusions as to the comparative saving habits of the several nations. Many factors need to be taken into account. In the United States, for example, there is a lack of facilities for saving, especially in the South and Far West. Hence the advocacy of the postal savings banks by many. For a wealthy nation, Americans cannot be considered very thrifty. The standard of living is high, and in addition to many luxuries, the average American wastes a good deal. The French are extremely thrifty, yet the aggregate of their savings does not indicate this. The explanation is that the French invest in national and foreign bonds and even in "industrial" stocks, while other peoples leave such investments to the banks and trust companies.

It is highly desirable to encourage the investment of savings in safe stocks and bonds. It leads to what Judge Grosscup has called the "peopleization of industry," and counteracts the tendencies to monopoly. However, the condition precedent and essential to such "nationalization" of enterprise and corporations is legislation limiting securities to the actual capital invested and preventing inflation, trickery and wildcat speculation. As for govern-

ment bonds, popular loans are advantageous because they do not place the government under obligation to syndicates and powerful moneyed interests.



## What the Paragraphers Say

Mrs. Cassie Chadwick could hardly have found it easier to raise money even if she had been a titled foreigner.—*Chicago Record-Herald*.

It is pretty hard to decide, of course, what to do to the tariff, but meantime the tariff keeps right on knowing what to do to us.—*The Indianapolis News*.

David B. Hill is about the most successful political prophet in the country. Long before election day he said he would retire on January 1, 1905.—*The Commoner, Lincoln, Neb.*

"If our combination is illegal," said the capitalist, "I suppose we will have to change it."

"Wouldn't it be easier to change the law?" asked his associate.—*Chicago Evening Post*.

It will take a session of The Hague conference to determine whether or not a British fishing boat is a Japanese torpedo vessel.—*Kansas City Journal*.

A man doesn't have to be a millionaire in order to become a sinner.—*Chicago News*.

IN THE MODERN STYLE.—Two well-known men about town were discussing a new club-house which had recently been built at great cost. One of the men had just been inspecting the new building.

"What style did you say it was decorated in?" asked the other.

The man who had seen the interior reflected a moment. "I think it was either Late Pullman or Early North German Lloyd," he replied.—*Harper's Weekly*.

### HIS PATIENCE EXHAUSTED

9 P. M.

Voice from above: "Pa, what are you doing?"

"Reading the President's message."

11 P. M.

Voice from above: "Pa, what are you doing down there?"

"Reading the President's message."

1 A. M.

Voice from above: "Pa!"

"Yes."

"What are you doing?"

"Reading the President's message."

3 A. M.

Voice from above: "Pa, are you down there yet?"

"Yes. Don't bother me."

"What are you doing?"

"I've been reading the President's message, but, confound it, there's no use trying to keep track of public affairs in this house, where a fellow has to be interrupted every few pages. Blamed if I'm going to read the thing at all now!"

Having thus given vent to his feelings, he hid the historical romance which he had been reading and went to bed.—*S. E. Kiser in Chicago Record-Herald*.



# England and the Industrial Revolution

By Frederic Austin Ogg

University of Indiana. Author of "Saxon and Slav."

**I**N the earlier articles of this series we have taken a general survey of social progress in the western countries of continental Europe during the first half of the nineteenth century. It is now desirable to return to our original point of departure and trace the parallel advance made by the people of England in this same interesting epoch. Thus far we have had little or nothing to say of England, not because social advancement of the profoundest character was not all the time being made in that nation, but because this advancement was of a distinctly original type and for the most part quite independent of contemporary movements on the continent. It is perfectly obvious that social developments among the modern French, Germans, Spaniards, Italians, and even Austrians, must be treated as closely interrelated. It has already been shown how at several successive times the impulse of revolution went forth from France to shake to their foundations the social structures among all of these western peoples, and how the emancipation of the masses in Germany, Austria, and Spain followed very closely the methods and results of the corresponding move-

ment in France. Naturally there were variations, progress being here more rapid, there more slow; here more violent, there more deliberative. But the uniformity of the general movement is far more striking than its diversities. England alone of west European nations worked out her deliverance from aristocratic domination and archaic institutions by a method peculiarly her own and also at a rate of speed affected but little by any sort of external influences. That she should do this was due in part to her insular position and traditional independence from the affairs of the continent, and partly to the innate conservatism of her people which forbade the haste and violence so characteristic of reform uprisings across the Channel. As we shall see, the social advancement of the English in the earlier nineteenth century was not wholly uninfluenced by the affairs of foreign countries, particularly France, but the fact remains that the making of modern English society in all its most essential features must have gone on much the same quite irrespective of contemporary experiments and revolutions in France and elsewhere. The story of

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This is the fifth of a series of nine articles on "Social Progress in Europe." The complete list in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Some Features of the Old Régime (September).  
The Afterglow of the Revolution (October).  
Reaction and the Republican Revival (November).  
Era of Social Experiment (December).

England and the Industrial Revolution (January).

England During the Victorian Era (February).  
Recent Social Movements in the Romance Countries (March).

Germany and the Progress of Socialism (April).

Social and Industrial Russia (May).

social progress among the English is probably as complete in itself as such things can ever well be.

In France, and on the continent in general, we found it necessary to begin our study of nineteenth century development by considering the transition from an old to a new social order wrought by the upheaval known as the French Revolution. In England it is likewise necessary to begin with an account of a social transition which gave the century its start under conditions very unlike those existing at an earlier period. But in the latter case the change was a characteristically English one—slow, unplanned, and generally quite devoid of violence and bloodshed. It is commonly spoken of as a “revolution,” and such it was so far as the transforming of social conditions was concerned; but the “Industrial Revolution” of England was very far from following the course which revolutions are generally supposed to follow. It was hardly more of a revolution in the ordinarily accepted sense than was the enormous development of urban population as compared with rural population in our own country during the last quarter of a century. And yet its effects, both immediate and remote, were incalculable. So far-reaching were they that for decades they seemed to have overshot the mark and to be fraught with greater harm than good to the people of England, and for fifty years they were directly responsible for a very large share of the social discontent in the country. Even today there are numerous consequences of the Industrial Revolution to which the people are by no means adjusted, and, as will appear in a subsequent chapter, not a few weighty issues in present-day English politics owe their origin to conditions brought about by this same so-called revolution.

In order to appreciate the nature and extent of this profound reshaping of English industry and social conditions it is necessary to view briefly the state of so-

ciety during the latter part of the eighteenth century, and then to consider at somewhat more length the facts of the industrial transition itself.

The reigns of Queen Anne and the first two Georges, while in many respects hardly glorious for England from the standpoint of either internal politics or foreign relations, were marked by general prosperity among the working population of the realm. In 1689 a bounty had been placed on exports and thereafter the raising of grain grew steadily more profitable. Farming was the standard occupation of the laboring classes—sometimes on the great estates of the nobility and other landed proprietors, sometimes by the peasants on their own little holdings. There were as yet but few cities and these were small. English manufactures had already become extensive, but they were not confined practically to the urban population as they are today. Through processes too complex to be detailed here the old craft guilds in the towns, many of which had been in existence from medieval times, had become so exclusive in their membership as to make it impossible for large manufacturing populations to grow up in the towns. These guilds enjoyed absolute industrial monopolies, and, while unable themselves to meet the increased demand for English goods, they foolishly tried to keep up prices by preventing the production of their class of commodities by men outside of the guild. Their charters enabled them as a rule to do this within the corporations of the towns; but in the country districts they had no authority, and the natural result was that many kinds of work which we instinctively associate with the city came to be done very extensively by the rural population beyond the reach of the guild restrictions. Thousands of people were at the same time farmers and manufacturers. Taking the woolen industry as an example, one would find carding, spinning, weaving, and dyeing all being done in the humblest peasant cottages—not

generally by the same person or even the same family, however, but after the principle of the division of labor. Woolen cloth thus made commanded a ready sale at a good price and the peasants who would have found it difficult enough to eke out an existence by depending on their little plots of ground alone were thus aided very materially in the making of a comfortable living. Bad weather and the winter seasons could be utilized in profitable labor, and the women and children could help support the family by working at industries generally neither unhealthful nor unpleasant. The ease with which this could be done will be apparent when one considers that until the century was well advanced the implements used in the woolen manufacture were of a very primitive type. They were inexpensive, simple, easily worked, and not likely to get out of repair. Patience rather than skill was the quality most required for their operation.

Students of eighteenth century England are struck by the fact that it was only in this late era that industry and commerce began to be at all regarded as bases for political promotion and social distinction. For centuries the holding of land had been the one really certain means of acquiring a true aristocratic place in society, and in England, as in early Rome, a man's position in the social scale was determined as much as anything else by the amount of real estate which he possessed. No matter how wealthy a merchant or a manufacturer might become he was held to be distinctly inferior to the large landed proprietor. Only by putting his money in land could he hope to be recognized by the proprietary class as in any way on their level, and even then this recognition was likely to come only to his children or grandchildren who were somewhat removed from the stigma of being mere traders or artisans. With the enormous expansion of English industry from the sixteenth to the eighteenth century this artificial basis of society was severely

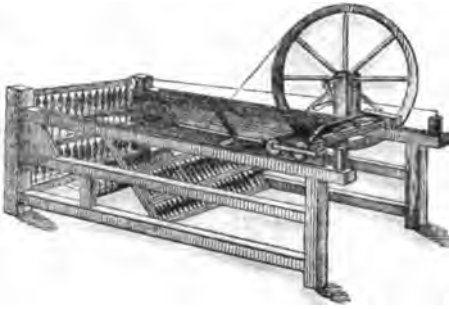
tested—so severely that already by the end of the reign of Queen Anne it was showing strong signs of giving way. Defoe announced the startling fact that trade was not inconsistent with the estate of a gentleman but rather might be the making of him, and Dean Swift declared that the social prestige which had once belonged to land-holding alone was fast being transferred to any sort of successful money-making. By sheer force of achievement and influence the capitalist and manufacturing classes forced themselves upon the level of the landholders and eventually tended to crowd them out. The day was coming when the rich mill-owner or iron-master would be quite as important as a great landlord.

The period of which we are speaking was the closing era of the so-called "domestic" system of manufacturing. While the capitalist class was growing, there were as yet few really considerable aggregations of capital, if judged by present day standards. Many of the guilds had been very wealthy, but because of their exclusiveness and failure to adjust themselves to new conditions they were fast deteriorating and were in no wise destined to control the great industrial future of the country. The independent capitalists with whom this future rested were still as a rule only small master-manufacturers who gave out pieces of work to be done by their employees in their own homes. As we have seen, these employees were generally small farmers, and it was not at all unusual for the master-manufacturer also to combine agriculture with industrial pursuits. In a few cases we hear of a considerable number of workmen being brought together to labor under one roof—the germs of the modern factory; but this plan did not come generally to prevail until the Industrial Revolution, with its extensive introduction of machinery, was well under way.

Defoe, in his "Tour Through Great Britain," written in the first half of the eighteenth century, gives an interesting



account of domestic manufacturing as he saw it in the region near Halifax in Yorkshire. "The land," he says, "was divided into small enclosures from two acres to six or seven each, seldom more, every three or four pieces of land having a house belonging to them; hardly a house



HARGREAVES' SPINNING JENNY

standing out of speaking distance with another. At every considerable house there was a manufactory. Every clothier keeps one horse at least to carry his manufactures to the market; and every one generally keeps a cow or two or more for his family. By this means the small pieces of enclosed land about each house are occupied, for they scarce sow corn enough to feed their poultry. The houses are full of lusty fellows, some at dye-vat, some at the looms, others dressing the cloths, the women and children carding or spinning; being all employed, from the youngest to the oldest." This system had its evils, but it must be at once apparent that it had some decided advantages over the factory system as we see it today. Gibbins, in his "Industrial History of England," has very well stated these as follows: "They (the laborers) still lived more or less in the country and were not crowded together in stifling alleys and courts, or long rows of bare smoke-begrimed streets in houses like so many dirty rabbit-hutches. Even if the artisan did live in a town at that time, the town was very different from the abodes of smoke and dirt which now prevail in the manufacturing districts. There were no tall chimneys, belching

forth clouds of evil smoke, no huge, hot factories with their hundreds of windows blazing forth a lurid light in the darkness, and rattling with the whirr and din of ceaseless machinery by day and night. There were no gigantic blast furnaces rising amid blackened heaps of cinders, or chemical works poisoning the fields and trees for miles around. These were yet to come. The factory and the furnace were almost unknown. Work was carried on by the artisan in his little stone or brick house, with the workshop inside, where the wool for the weft was carded and spun by his wife and daughters, and the cloth was woven by himself and his sons. He had also, in nearly all cases, his plot of land near the house, which provided him both with food and recreation, for he could relieve the monotony of weaving by cultivating his little patch of ground, or feeding his pigs and poultry."

All in all, judged by eighteenth century standards the conditions of the laboring classes under the domestic system of manufacturing were far from bad. Work was rather more regular than it is apt to be at present. The market for home-spun fabrics was far more uniform than that for factory made goods today. Wages were lower than in our time but rent and prices of food were not more than half as high. "Not only has grain become somewhat cheaper," says Adam Smith, in his "Wealth of Nations," "but many other things from which the industrious poor derive an agreeable and wholesome variety of food have become a great deal cheaper." When, in 1763, the Seven Years' War came to an end more than a hundred thousand soldiers were thrown upon the country to find employment and sustenance, yet, as Adam Smith further testifies, social conditions were so favorable that, "not only no great convulsion but no sensible disorder arose."

Even the purely agricultural laborers, usually the worst off of all classes, were enjoying a good degree of prosperity. Arthur Young, whose writings on social

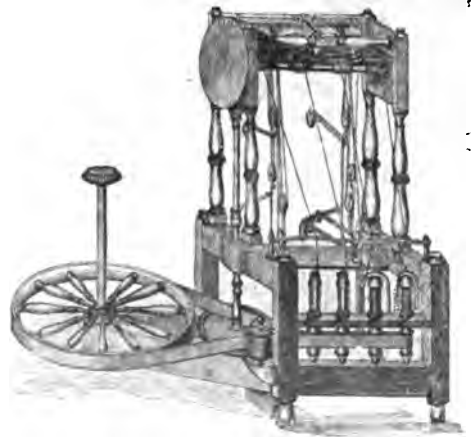
conditions in eighteenth century France have already been referred to, tells us that among English workingmen in both town and country, wheat bread had entirely displaced rye bread, that the consumption of meat and cheese was greater than ever before, and that every poor family now drank tea, which had formerly been a costly luxury. "Indeed," he says, "the laborers, by their large wages and the cheapness of all necessities enjoyed better dwellings, diet and apparel in England than the husbandmen or farmers did in other countries." The contrast with contemporary conditions in France was especially striking.

It is quite essential that these things be borne in mind when we come to consider the Industrial Revolution. That great movement which so completely reconstructed the industrial and even the political life of England was utterly unlike the Revolution in France, not only in its methods, but equally by the fact that it came in response to no recognized needs or definite desires of the lower social classes. It was not a sudden uprising—a striking away of the foundations of an old régime and the substituting of a wholly new social structure—but a slow and gradual change in the means and methods of industry, its successive stages being marked, not by decrees or battles or constitutions, but by the invention of machinery, the rise of factories, and the growth of towns. From first to last the process went on for more than a century and several phases of it are still unfinished today. Roughly speaking, it began about the middle of the eighteenth century and achieved its largest results by the middle of the nineteenth. When it commenced England was preëminently an agricultural country. Even her commerce was more important than her manufactures. When it had done its main work, England was even more preëminently a manufacturing country, and agriculture had been relegated to at least third place in importance. Aside from legal and political

institutions, the England that we know today is in a large measure the product of the Industrial Revolution—far more in fact than is modern France the product of the French Revolution.

As has been suggested, the Industrial Revolution consisted of three important elements: (1) the invention of machinery, (2) the rise of factories, and (3) the growth of cities. The last two were caused mainly by the first and so any study of the general movement must begin with some consideration of the mechanical inventions of the later eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries.

The first such invention which we need note as tending to modify conditions of manufacturing was that of the fly-shuttle by John Kay in 1738. By it one man could operate the loom which had hitherto required two, and at the same time the machine's productive power was doubled. This quadrupling of the efficiency of the weaver soon called for more yarn than the spinners could produce. In 1767 James Hargreaves, a Lancaster weaver, invent-



ARKWRIGHT'S SPINNING MACHINE

ed what was known as the spinning-jenny, which, instead of carrying but a single thread as the old spinning wheels had done, carried at first eight, then sixteen, then twenty, then a hundred and twenty, and even higher numbers. This invention made it possible to supply the weavers with

all the yarn they could use without increasing the number of spinners. In 1771 Richard Arkwright set up a mill at Cromford, in Derbyshire, in which he used his new patent "water-frame"—a spinning machine worked not by hand but by water. This was the first such use of water-power



POWER-LOOM WEAVING IN 1835

on record. In 1779 Samuel Crompton, also a Lancaster man, combined the best features of Hargreaves' and Arkwright's machines in what was commonly known as the "mule-jenny"—a curious mechanism which has been improved until it now carries two thousand spindles and needs so little attention that many machines can be operated by one man. All these inventions gave a wonderful stimulus to the textile industries. Not only was the spinning of silk, wool and flax now made a matter of no difficulty, but the manufacture of cotton, which had hitherto been regarded as on the whole impracticable in England, was put in a fair way of development; and when in 1793 Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin, by which the cleaning of cotton fiber was so greatly facilitated, the amount of cotton yarn that could be furnished to weavers was limited only by the production of the new material.

All this, however, was of rather slight consequence unless the same sort of improvements could be made in weaving that had been made in spinning. The best looms in existence were operated by hand ("hand-loom" they were called) and, though improved as we have seen by John Kay, had but insignificant productive

power. The need in this direction was supplied in 1785 by Dr. Cartwright, a clergyman of Kent, in his power-loom to be operated by water. Not much was made of the invention, however, until about 1813, and in the meantime, while spinning had been practically taken out of the hands of the domestic workman and concentrated in mills, hand-loom weaving in the homes of the laborers continued much as before. Dr. Cartwright's loom received numerous improvements and was destined to be the ruin of the last vestiges of domestic manufacture, but it needed a better sort of power than that furnished by water and it was not until the application of steam to this use that progress was made. The first such application was in a factory at Papplewick, in Nottinghamshire, in 1785, the year in fact in which the power-loom was invented, but a decade or more elapsed before the new sort of power was of very decided advantage in the cotton manufacture.

The direct outcome of all these inventions and others which we have not time to mention was the rise of the so-called factory system. The fundamental feature of the factory system is the bringing together of large numbers of workmen in a single establishment where machinery can be set up in a considerable quantity and variety and where steam or water power can be utilized on a large scale. It is thus contrasted at every point with the old domestic system under which the laborers worked in their own homes, using the simplest machinery propelled by hand power.

It is not difficult to see why the invention and improvement of spinning and weaving machines should have been followed by a rapid decline of the domestic system of manufacture and a corresponding development of the modern factory. In the first place, the new machinery was generally expensive. The old hand-loom and spinning wheel had been so simple in construction and so easily obtained that no laborer need be embar-

passed by the cost of the tools of his trade. But this was not at all true of Crompton's mule-jenny or Cartwright's powerloom, even in their most rudimentary forms. In the next place, it was all but impossible to operate the new machinery within the home. It required the application of water-power or, better still, of steam. The former could be had only in certain localities and the latter called for an expensive set of machinery in addition to that used directly in manufacture. If either sort of power was utilized at all it was bound to be sufficient to keep many machines going and hence to employ many workmen. Such an enlargement of productivity within the laborer's home was out of the question. The result was that he gave up home manufacture and became an employee in some centralized establishment. Moreover the introduction of machinery and power made it economical to carry on various branches of the same industry under the same roof. For instance, in the cotton manufacture there was no reason for separating the carders from the spinners or the spinners from the weavers, but the work of all could be done most expeditiously within one another's reach and with a common supply of power. Thus by virtue of no particular premeditation, but simply in response to conditions and needs as they arose, the factory system in England was established.

It is perfectly obvious that such an industrial transformation could not but touch the every-day lives of the people very closely. For the most part men were quite antagonistic to the new system and it must be said that it won its way rather despite of the public will than because of it. From the beginning it was foreseen by many that every machine invented would mean more or less of a derangement of industry and was likely to throw hundreds and thousands out of employment. Although there are some who still hold the contrary opinion, it may be affirmed that in the long run the introduc-

tion of machinery greatly expanded the field of labor and brought about better conditions for the laborer. But naturally this was not apparent in the eighteenth century—at any rate the struggling peasant, dependent upon his home industry to save him from pauperism, could not see it. Therefore we need not be surprised to learn that practically every invention of importance brought down upon the head of the inventor the wrath of the laboring classes. Hargreaves, for example, met with mob violence and was compelled to remove to Nottinghamshire in order to set up his spinning-jenny in safety. In 1779 there was a series of outbreaks in Lancaster in which several machines were destroyed by the angry populace. Similar demonstrations might be cited in many other parts of the country. But the trend toward the new industrial régime was too strong to be stayed by men who had no resource but violence. Gradually the laboring population began to adapt itself to the changed conditions and the progress of England toward the industrial posi-



CARDING, DRAWING AND ROVING IN 1835

tion she now occupies was scarcely retarded, notwithstanding the discontent of perhaps three-fourths of her people.

The most striking feature of this adaptation was a general shifting of population, first, from the southern to the northern counties, and second from the country to the cities. The migration to the north had really begun before the revolution but it was greatly accelerated by that industrial change. It was in the

north that the great mineral resources of England lay and it was this fact that determined the location of most of the new mills and factories. Coal and iron were there abundant, the former providing unlimited possibilities in the way of steam power, the latter insuring the production



MULE-SPINNING IN 1835

of better tools and better machinery. In 1788 England produced 18,000 tons of iron; in 1796, 125,000; in 1806, 250,000—a record in no small degree due to the enormous development of machinery. From all parts of the realm the working people flocked to the cities of Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, and Lancashire. These cities, notably Leeds, Manchester, and Sheffield, now became the most populous and flourishing, with the exception of London, in all England. Great mills were built in these centers about which people who had abandoned their country homes gathered by hundreds and thousands. Men who with their families had engaged in domestic manufacture in order to supplement the incomes from their little farms found to their dismay that they were able neither to produce goods which would any longer command a market nor to provide themselves with the machinery necessary for the production of such goods. The one resource left to them was to leave their homes and give up their industrial independence to become employees in the new factory towns. It would be a mistake to think of this movement as anything like universal. Here and there domestic industry lived on as indeed

it does today. We even hear of places in which as late as 1840 there were conflicts between the hand-loom weavers and the power-loom weavers. But the broad fact remains that before the nineteenth century was well under way the domestic system had been generally displaced, and the great majority of manufacturing workmen had been compelled to have recourse to the factory.

The social consequences of the Industrial Revolution were soon apparent, and they were far from being altogether favorable. With the nineteenth century commenced a great era of industrial consolidation and activity which meant vastly increased wealth and prestige for the employers of labor. For a little time, just when this expansion was at high tide, the laborers were likewise benefited, chiefly by being paid higher wages, but before the new era was far advanced it became apparent that for them there were to be more losses than gains. In the first place, the factory system marked the real beginning of the modern antagonism between capital and labor. Capital now became the most important element in production and labor was cut off from a share in its own products, being now a mere hired dependency with little personal interest in the quality of its services. The interests of capitalist and laborer grew rapidly apart and the attitude of the one toward the other became little less than that of open hostility. Men by the thousands were thrown out of employment. Machines put a discount on muscle and skill. Women and children could frequently do the work which had hitherto required men, and as the former would accept lower wages the employers were not slow in substituting them in their factories. The result, as one writer puts it, was to reverse the relations of the home. "Wives and children became bread-winners, while grown men vainly sought employment or degenerated into contented idleness."

The worst feature of the new system

was the marked physical and moral deterioration of the laboring classes. Methods of living and working became the worst that England had ever known. Whereas the mass of laboring people had heretofore dwelt in their humble but healthful country homes and worked together in family groups, they were now gathered in congested districts around the great mill centers where they frequently lived amid conditions shockingly degrading. Men, women, and children were thrown together in large factories with no moral control, and usually with no arrangements for the preservation of health, comfort and decency. Employees were worked long and hard—as a rule not less than fifteen hours a day and sometimes as many as eighteen. Factory proprietors were generally men of a more or less avaricious and morally indifferent character, whose sole aim was to realize as much as possible from their investments regardless of the welfare of those in their employ.

But bad as the conditions were inside the factories, they were usually worse in the working people's homes. Housing accommodations were hopelessly inadequate. Whole families huddled together in cellars and attics. Even as late as Queen Victoria's time it is said that in Manchester one-tenth of the total population lived in cellars, often reeking with stagnant filth and breeding fevers which kept the physicians of the city taxed to the utmost. The physique of the factory laborers, especially the women, began rapidly to degenerate, and the death rate became appallingly high. It is clearly within the truth to say that the life of the negro slave in the southern United States was easy indeed compared with that of the North England factory laborer in the first quarter of the nineteenth century. The negro had at least plenty of fresh air, substantial food, and hours for rest, while the factory workman had none of these. Even the external form of slavery was pretty well duplicated in the terrible traffic in orphan

and pauper children by which the operators kept up the supply of cheap labor for their mills. And whereas the epithet "factory girl" had for a time been regarded as little better than one of insult, dire necessity compelled thousands of girls from families hitherto in comfortable circumstances to enter upon the hazardous life of the mills. When the wages of workingmen were reduced to a starvation level they were compelled to consent to the breaking up of their homes and the employment of their wives and children in factories.

Thus, by reason of the greed and inhumanity of the operators, the unseemly haste with which factories were built and provided with workers, and the throwing of domestic manufacturers out of employment through the competition of machine-made goods, there arose a condition of things, more or less throughout all England, but particularly in the North, that was simply unbearable. In our next study we shall take a survey of the great reform movements by which the worst of these ills were remedied and of the various means by which the English people adjusted themselves to the new industrial system and at the same time achieved for



COTTON FACTORIES IN MANCHESTER

themselves a far larger share than they had ever before enjoyed in the management of their own governmental and social relations.

#### TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- I. English methods of social progress.
  1. Movements generally independent of those on the continent.

2. Contrast English conservatism with continental radicalism.
- II. Nature of the Industrial Revolution in England.
  1. Not a revolution in ordinary sense.
  2. Conditions of society preceding it.
    - a. Earlier dominance of land-holding class.
    - b. Rise in importance of merchant and manufacturer.
    - c. The domestic system of manufacturing.
    - d. The average peasant both a farmer and a manufacturer.
    - e. Benificent features of the domestic system.
    - f. Good conditions prevailing among common people.
- III. Three important elements in the Industrial Revolution.
  1. Invention of machinery.
    - a. 1738—John Kay's fly-shuttle.
    - b. 1767—Hargreaves' spinning-jenny.
    - c. 1771—Arkwright's water-frame.
    - d. 1779—Crompton's mule-jenny.
    - e. 1785—Cartwright's power-loom.
    - f. 1793—Whitney's Cotton-gin.
  2. Rise of the factory system.
    - a. Why machinery did away with domestic system.
    - b. Popular resistance to introduction of machinery.
    - c. Derangement of labor conditions.
  3. Growth of towns and cities.
    - a. Shifting of population to cities of Northern England.
    - b. Influx of laborers from country districts.
- IV. Social consequences of the Industrial Revolution.
  1. Rise of antagonism of capital and labor.
  2. Introduction of woman and child labor.
  3. Decline in wages.
  4. Lowering of standard of living.
  5. Evil conditions in factories and homes.

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What country was the center of revolutionary movements on the continent? 2. Why was social progress in England so independent of the rest of Europe? 3. How should a study of social progress in England in the nineteenth century begin? 4. In what sense was the "Industrial Revolution" a revolution? 5. What organizations controlled trade and manufacture in England prior to the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries? How did they do it? 6. Describe the system of domestic manufacture. 7. What were the good features of the domestic system? 8. What were its evils? 9. What was the basis of social distinction in England in the early eighteenth century (aside from birth)? 10. What new basis was appearing by the end of the

eighteenth? 11. What were the three important elements in the Industrial Revolution? 12. What invention is connected with the name of Hargreaves? Arkwright? Cartwright? Whitney? 13. What was the effect of the invention of the power-loom? 14. Why did the invention of machinery lead to the factory system? 15. Why were inventors hated by the English laboring classes? 16. What was the effect of the rise of factories on the distribution of population? 17. Why were the factories built in the North? 18. What was the effect of the Industrial Revolution upon the relations of capital and labor? 19. What was its effect upon the family? 20. Account for the bad condition of life in the early factory towns. 21. Compare the lot of the factory laborers with that of the negro slaves in the United States.

#### SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Why did the Industrial Revolution take place in England before on the continent? 2. What is the significance of the term "farmer" in England? 3. Name two famous poems inspired by the sad condition of the earlier factory workers. 4. What was Adam Smith's great book and when was it published? 5. Who was Defoe? 6. What famous poem illustrates the shifting of England's population to the factory centers?

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## Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck

By Wolf von Schierbrand

Author of "Germany: The Welding of a World Power."

**A**T the northwestern confines of Germany, forming a rather flat triangle, lie Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck, cities which jointly and strikingly illustrate, and, in a measure, typify the Germany of old and the Germany of today. Hamburg, though one of the earliest towns in the Teutonic North and five centuries ago wealthy and flourishing, trading with the Levant and the whole Mediterranean shore as well as with the Scandinavian countries and Russia, but above all with England and the Flemish Lowlands, is substantially a modern city, now boasting of a population of 750,000, second in size in the lusty young empire. Kiel, on the other hand, though the seat of a university for centuries past, owes its present growth and importance to the consolidation of Germany into a united political entity thirty-three years since. Lübeck again with its fine medieval architecture, its narrow streets and alleys, lined on either side with tall, narrow, gabled houses of stately patrician antecedents, carries us right into the heart of the romantic Middle Ages, back into a time when its burghers were proud

merchant princes, when this embattled town was lording it in sovereign sway over the whole Baltic, was crowning and uncrowning kings and potentates, and sending out its fleet of steep-prowed *or-log* (war) ships to vanquish the combined naval forces of Sweden and Denmark.

The old and the new, each with charms of its own—here you find them in close array. But to understand the new, to appreciate justly and sympathetically the driving forces of the German Empire of today and the manners and motives that impel its people, it is indeed needful to dive into that past out of which grew by slow stages, often almost imperceptibly, the present.

Let us consider the case of Lübeck first.

By the shores of the Trave river, not far from where it empties into the Baltic (at Travemünde, its seaport), Lübeck was founded, in 1143, by Count Adolph II of Holstein, whence, too, the name of the Holstenthor, the picturesque main gate of the city on the land side, the fourteen-foot walls and buttresses of which have scarcely been gnawed by the tooth of time.

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This is the fifth of a series of nine articles entitled "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany." The complete list in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

The Belgium of Charles the Bold and Philip II, by Clare de Graffenried (September).

Twentieth Century Belgium, by Clare de Graffenried (October).

Hanover, Hildesheim, Brunswick, by Clara M. Stearns (November).

Munich: The City on the Isar, by N. Hudson Moore (December).

Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck, by Wolf von Schierbrand (January).

Town and Country Byways, by Clara M. Stearns (February).

Weimar, by Prof. Robert W. Deering (March).  
What Berlin Offers, by Professor Otto Heller (April).

University Life (May).





GENERAL VIEW OF LÜBECK

The town grew with marvelous rapidity, for it was a daring, brawny set of men that settled there, men who knew how to brave in their galleons and caravels the murderous squalls of the shallow inland sea and how to protect against the ever-lurking robber-knights their precious wares on the rough highroads. Already in 1226 Lübeck had achieved its independence, had become a Reichsstadt, *i. e.*, a municipal commonwealth owing allegiance to none but the Imperial Crown. And but fifteen years later, in 1241, Lübeck took the lead in forming that remarkable confederacy of cities known to history as the Hansa. Its ally at first was Hamburg, but so rapidly spread the power of the Hansa that within a score of years the Hansa comprised eighty-five leading towns of the old empire, with Lübeck at the head of them all, and Cologne, Brunswick and Dantzic as the presiding Quartierstadt, or district center, of the other main regions. In 1364 the Hansa was firmly organized at a great meeting held in Cologne, and its joint

purposes clearly defined in a constitution which, though the terrible Thirty Years' War (1618-1648), a war which reduced Germany's population from twenty-five to four millions and destroyed her wealth for centuries, broke also the real power of the Hansa, weathered the storms of many generations and survived even the old empire itself. The name Hansa is of Flemish origin, however, and it was Bruges, Ghent and Antwerp which in their earlier federation had served as first models to the German Städtebund.

The Hansa, then, during its centuries of growth and power, had as its main purpose extension and protection of industry and commerce, both within the empire and abroad (and fortress-like branch establishments, guarded by men-at-arms, existed for hundreds of years in London, Bruges, Bergen, and Novgorod); strict maintenance of justice and commercial usages within the towns forming part of the Hansa; and the preservation and enlargement of civic rights and liberties. It was the protagonist of

municipal freedom during the Middle Ages, and hence the foe of feudalism. The zenith of its glory was reached during the fourteenth century, when it greatly overtopped that of the emperor himself as well as the rulers of the northern countries. The Kings of Norway, Denmark and Sweden for a long time paid tribute to the Hansa, and its pennant waved triumphant in both the Baltic and North Sea, nay, even in the far-away White Sea. It cleansed the ocean of piracy, and completely wiped out of existence the strong piratical confederacy known as the Brethren of Vitalis (Vitalienbrüder), 670 of whom, after a victorious naval engagement near the south shore of Sweden, the admiral of the Hansa fleet hanged higher than Haman on the yardarms of his vessels. Again and again the Hansa scoured the northern waters, from Riga and Reval (members of the Hansa) on the east, to Antwerp and Dunkerque on the west, and on land they built dykes, canals, and better highroads, and successfully withstood the haughty and lawless knights and barons of the soil, enabling the German cities of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries to focus the continental trade of Europe and make of some of them, like Augsburg and Nuremberg, the equals in wealth, refinement and progress of Venice and Bruges. The discovery of America and internal German events changed this, however, and Lübeck, at one time a city surpassing by far London in population and luxury, Lübeck, which alone had raised war fleets of 400 vessels and armies of 35,000, went down. Her glory departed, like that of Venice some time later. The last effort to regain her lost ascendancy was made during the time of Luther's Refor-

mation. Lübeck's burgomaster at that critical period was Jürgen Wullenweber, one of the most interesting figures in the history of municipal development, a man of heroic mould and the undaunted champion of democratic government. Under his lead Lübeck once more rose to great power and affluence, but the Emperor



HOLSTENTHOR, LÜBECK

Charles V, a grim foe alike to Protestantism and to civic liberty, drowned Wullenweber's great work in blood.

Since then history has trodden other paths. A luxurious town Lübeck remained and is to this day; but for centuries it was the somnolence that comes after a good dinner. The commerce of the world had shifted and drifted, and the Atlantic became the highway,



VIEW FROM THE TRAVE RIVER, LÜBECK

with the Briton as the main navigator.

Lübeck still dreams of the great past. Its Rathaus (city hall), a gem of Gothic architecture; its magnificent cathedral, its picturesque old market place, its well-preserved patrician palaces with their curious carvings in stone, their fretted wrought-iron balustrades and balconies (termed *Erker*), their oriel windows of high artistic value, and their splendidly carved wainscotings, sideboards, treasury chests (termed *Tresur*), tables and chairs of core oak or ash, their beautifully chased and hammered goblets, trays and dishes of silver and gold, works of Dürer, Sebastian Brandt, and other masters, and their early oil paintings on canvas and wood by Lucas Cranach, Memling, and of the Rhenish and Flemish schools, are still the delight of the connoisseur. Those who feel and appreciate the quiet, musty charm of Nuremberg will doubly feel and appreciate that of Lübeck. For Lübeck, like a dainty insect in amber, has been preserved almost intact.

To be sure, of late a breath of fresh air from the outside has begun to stir the medieval slumber of this half-forgotten city. The young empire has been no stepmother to her. The harbor has been improved; the Trave has been regulated; Lübeck's sea harbor, Travemünde, has been given modern docks, and part of the Baltic shipping has found its way back to the old roadstead. And Lübeck, for all it is still the *Vorort* (head place) of the Hansa (the other two members being Hamburg and Bremen) and still an aristocratic republic governed by "consuls" and municipal delegates, has begun to "find itself" once more, and new blood begins to pulse in its sluggish veins.

A few hours by rail and one arrives at Hamburg, bustling, crowded, eager Hamburg, the great emporium of the European continent, next to London the greatest seaport, a city typical of the young empire and its reawakened energies and ambitions. Hamburg lies on the Elbe, a broad and stately river here, but



ALSTER BASIN AND ALSTER PAVILLON, HAMBURG

her outer harbor, Cuxhaven (where the Elbe mingles its dun waves with those of the emerald North Sea), is a score of miles off, and the big trans-Atlantic steamers and many other craft prefer to unload their passengers and cargoes there.

It was more than eleven hundred years ago, during the reign of Charlemagne, that Hamburg was founded, both as a nucleus of Christianity among the pagan and stiff-necked Saxons and Frisians inhabiting the lowlands north and south of the Elbe, and as a fastness against the savage Danes and Normans and their continual inroads on their Viking vessels. Hamburg was made a bishopric and a center for the missionizing of the whole North. For about three hundred years the new city prospered none too well, but after Hamburg had become a free and independent town—or rather a municipal republic, like Lübeck—and had joined the Hansa in a defensive and offensive alliance, it grew in size and wealth. Nevertheless, Hamburg all through the Middle Ages never equalled Lübeck in either respect, and while her shipping

gravitated toward the coast of the North Sea—the British Isles, France and Flanders—she never enjoyed such a hegemony in trade and politics as did Lübeck. Hamburg skippers, though, gradually extended their sphere wider and wider, risked their skins along the Barbary coasts and went as far as Greece and Constantinople, even to the dreaded Euxine—the modern Black Sea. Later on Hamburg vessels, carrying the pretty Hamburg flag—the three white towers in a scarlet field—convoyed precious-freighted ships and had many a hard-fought battle with pirates sailing under the crescent or the skull and cross-bones. Nor did the discovery of America quite lame their enterprise. They clung to their old trade routes.

Prosperous enough, though nothing to compare with today, the centuries went past, and Napoleon I, with his anti-British naval policy hove in sight. It was during the years 1800-1813 that Hamburg's shipping was destroyed, and when the Corsican conqueror at last sailed for St. Helena the great port had dwindled to a



**FREIHAFEN, PART OF THE HARBOR EXEMPT FROM CUSTOMS DUTIES, HAMBURG**



**HANSA HARBOR, HAMBURG**



THE BOURSE, HAMBURG



SCHAUSPIELHAUS—MUNICIPAL THEATER, HAMBURG

ported to the United States goods worth \$85,790,000, and in 1903, \$121,790,000, almost altogether industrial products, the most valuable exports of all.

These facts and figures will seem surprising to many, for it is only of late that Germany has forged ahead so enormously.



NICOLAI KIRCHE, 485 FEET HIGH, HAMBURG

But the methods by which she has accomplished, and is still accomplishing, such miracles are simple and easily understood. In illustration it may be well to revert again to Hamburg.

Hamburg has left behind in the total amount of its shipping interests every other city on the globe with the single exception of London. But Hamburg has done, too, everything which enterprise and wise foresight could do to bring this about. Hamburg has spent more money than

any other two harbors in the world together during the last score of years to perfect her technical facilities. Her system of quays and docks and warehouses is the best in existence, and the \$56,000,000 laid out on these improvements by her municipal authorities and her ship-

owners are bringing rich fruit.

All these improvements are made of durable material—stone and iron and steel—and are equipped with hydraulic machinery, with cranes, derricks and other hoisting apparatus, that are equal to any emergency. In fact, today hydraulic engineers the world over go to Hamburg to study these triumphs of professional skill, as they formerly used to go to London and Liverpool. The water front of Hamburg, with its miles of model docks and quays, is a modern marvel of practical genius, and may stand for a fitting and eloquent type of material progress in Germany. American engineers are particularly struck with the fact on their first visit to Hamburg. And another point: From these harbor improvements Hamburg is drawing a steady and ever-increasing revenue, a revenue equal to a very fine rate of interest on the capital invested.

What has been said here is equally true, though not in the same measure, of the other German harbors, such as Bremen, Stettin Dantzic, etc., and at the close of 1901 Germany had 4,017 sea-going vessels afloat, being surpassed only by England.

Her crews, nearly all natives of her Waterkant (*i. e.*, Baltic or North Sea coast) number in excess of 50,000. Her 1,293 steamers are nearly all steel-built. Even of her sailing vessels 158 are leviathans of 2,000 tons and over. Germany's river and inland merchant marine is also

quite large, namely 22,564 vessels, with a total tonnage of 3,370,447, which is not much smaller than our own lake fleet.

The twin city of Hamburg, Altona (itself boasting a population of a quarter of a million), is the headquarters of one of Germany's twenty-three army corps, the ninth, and affords a good opportunity of studying that formidable fighting machine, the German army. When Napoleon I, a century ago, overran and subdued Germany, her territory was split into several hundred sovereign states, varying in size between a few square miles and good-sized domains. The map of Germany at that time looked like the motley jerkin of a harlequin. Today the armed forces of the empire, both by land and sea, are under the chief command of the emperor, are homogeneous,



NEW CITY HALL, HAMBURG



A BIT OF OLD HAMBURG: THE FLEETH

drilled and disciplined according to one system. The peace footing of the army shows altogether 605,975 men, officers and rank and file, divided into 216 regiments of infantry with about 100,000 artillery, and some 70,000 cavalry, and altogether 105,642 horses. On a war footing the army numbers, roughly, 3,000,000, including the men in active service, the reservists, the Landwehr, and the Landsturm, the latter from 35 to 45 years old and only to be used (according to the constitution of the empire) for home defense, not in foreign parts, thus leaving about 2,200,000 men for offensive purposes. Many changes in equipment, arms, and tactics have been made in the German army since the end of the war with France, in 1871; the peace





FRIEDRICHSRUH, PRINCE BISMARCK'S HOME

footing little by little has been doubled, keeping step with France in this respect. This is, no doubt, a heavy burden in every sense for the German people, but the fact that Germany's population today outnumbers that of France by, roundly, twenty millions, shows that her own burden is not as enormous as that of her western neighbor. As a matter of fact, it costs Germany not much more in taxes to maintain her army of 605,975 than it costs to maintain the 65,000 of the United States army.

Before leaving Hamburg it is worth while making a short trip to Friedrichsruh, Bismarck's extensive estate, but forty minutes by rail. The rather unassuming chateau of Friedrichsruh is but a few minutes' walk from the little railroad station, at the edge of the big Sachsenwald, an immense forest of beeches and oak and the chief source of revenue of its owner—now the seven-year-old heir of the late Prince Herbert Bismarck. The mausoleum, containing all that was mortal of the great statesman, is near the chateau and, like the latter, accessible to tourists.

Many interesting mementoes of Bismarck are left intact in the chateau, and his study, death chamber, and principal living room have been left undisturbed.

In another direction, but also reached by a short journey by rail, is Kiel, now Germany's main naval bulwark, facing the Baltic, with a very fine and safe harbor, and surrounded by a landscape of a peculiar, idyllic beauty, full of placid lakes and stately beech groves. Ploen, with one of the Kaiser's castles and a military academy where all of his sons have received their early training, is close by, and it is likewise the main headquarters of Prince Henry, the Kaiser's brother and the resident admiral.

When Kiel was annexed to Prussia, after the last war with Denmark, in 1865, it was a sleepy little town with hardly any industry, commerce or shipping. Its university was the one redeeming feature. Under German hands, within forty years, Kiel has grown into a city of 200,000, and is highly flourishing. It is the chief naval port. The imperial navy yards are located here; so are the big Germania shipyards.

owned by Krupp; the Admiralty building; the Marine Academy; immense warehouses and docks, and a large number of prosperous factories, etc. The greatest impetus to Kiel's growth, however, has been given by the completion of the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal, called for short the Baltic Canal, which has its eastern mouth near Kiel and its western on the lower Elbe, not far from Hamburg. This waterway was planned soon after Kiel had become German, and it was finished in 1895. The commerce of Kiel has quintupled within those ten years, and its population more than doubled. The canal joins the Baltic with the North Sea, thus shortening the way by hundreds of miles and doing away with the dangerous and crooked route around the Skager Rack and through the Danish archipelago. Primarily this work was undertaken for strategic reasons, for the canal virtually doubles Germany's navy, performing for her what the Panama Canal will do for us within a few years.

Indeed, it is not too much to say that it is only due to this canal (which enables Germany, within thirty-six hours, to concentrate her navy at will, either in the Baltic or North Sea, and which, moreover, affords at all times a safe shelter or retreat for her marine forces) that Germany now ranks with the first-class naval powers. In number of vessels and in their fighting strength she is today still outranked by England, France, and Russia. But her navy is larger than that of the United States, with a much less extensive coast to defend, and she has left Italy, Austria and others far in the rear. Under her present naval increase law her navy grows at the rate of about 40,000 tons per annum. The latest authentic figures show Germany to have 41 battleships, of which 12 are for coast defense and 29 form her battle fleet (7 of these now completing); 23 protected cruisers (but none larger than 6,500 tons, she believing in speedy and "handy" vessels for this type); 154 torpedo boats and de-

stroyers, and 6 submarine boats, with the necessary complement of gunboats, transports and auxiliary cruisers (the latter being furnished, by contract, mostly by vessels belonging to the North German Lloyd and Hamburg-American steamer fleets), with a naval personnel of 33,500 and a naval reserve of 110,000. By 1916, under the terms of the aforementioned law, the offensive part of the German navy is to number 34 battleships, 11 large and 34 small cruisers, with 4 more large battleships and 7 cruisers as a reserve. Her navy will then be considerably larger than the French navy is today.

How much the skippers of the Baltic and North Sea appreciate this Baltic Canal is best shown by the figures. The tonnage which, in 1903, passed through the Suez Canal (after nearly forty years'



PRINCE HENRY  
Resident Admiral at Kiel.

use) was 9,700,000, tolls there being proverbially high. This defect the Baltic Canal is not guilty of. Five years after the dedication of the Baltic Canal, 29,571 vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of



VIEW OF HARBOR, KIEL

4,282,258, passed through it. The yearly increase of this tonnage is about 25 to 30 per cent, and in 1903 it amounted to nearly 6,000,000 tons.

Aside from its naval features (which indeed are best studied here) Kiel offers not a great deal that will attract the sight-seer. The Düsternbrook is well worth a visit, though, and it is not difficult to gain admittance to the Imperial Navy Yard (Kaiserliche Marinewerft), where a number of vessels, from the blunt-nosed torpedo and the graceful gunboat to the most massive thunderer are always in process of construction. Of the 10,000 to 12,000 men employed about this immense yard (fenced in on all sides) the majority are known to be socialists—a fact which at first seems rather odd, until one learns that the greater number of German sailors, navvies and shipbuilders are of that creed everywhere, and that they, indeed, are the most intelligent and efficient toilers.

Hamburg, it must be confessed, is far

more attractive in a general way. An enormous conflagration destroyed, in 1842, a great portion of the oldest section of the city, including many of the Fleeths (by which name are known the narrow, ancient lanes lined on both sides with tall warehouses and intersected by canals), but enough of these quaint and picturesque though rather unhygienic portions of Hamburg remain to satisfy those with a taste for it. As a whole, however, Hamburg is now one of the most beautiful and wealthiest cities in the world. The basin of the Alster river (a tributary of the Elbe), located in the very heart of the town and surrounded by broad, park-like avenues and residence streets, is a unique feature. The new city hall of Hamburg (which was dedicated, with gorgeous ceremonies and lavish hospitality, in the presence of the Kaiser, a couple of years ago) shows in its pure Gothic Renaissance style and its interior and exterior decorations that the union of the old and new is feasible for an able architect. Pro-

portionately there is far more wealth in Hamburg than in Berlin, and the life of the merchant classes in the former city is almost sybarite; at least so it is popularly accounted through Germany, and the Hamburg cuisine is held the best in the Fatherland. In many ways Hamburg even today is more English than German. This is especially true of her mode and methods of doing business, for even her business hours are those of London, and her style of living. Nowhere else in Germany is so much solid, genuine comfort to be found.

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How do Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck illustrate the old and the new in Germany? 2. Describe the beginnings of Lübeck in history. 3. Give an account of the Hansa league. 4. What part did Lübeck play at this time? 5. What causes brought about its decline? 6. How is its ancient splendor attested today? 7. What present importance has Hamburg among European cities? 8. Give a brief account of its history. 9. Show how its trade has increased in thirty years. 10. How have Germany's industries developed in this time? 11. How has her capital increased? 12. What is true of Germany's trade with the United States? 13. Describe Hamburg's harbor improvements. 14. What is true of Germany's other seaports? 15. What importance has Altona? 16. What of interest is to be found at Friedrichsruh? 17. Describe the situation and general appearance of Kiel. 18. Give an account of its growth within forty years. 19. What is the state of the German navy? 20.

What service does the Baltic Canal render to commerce? 21. How is the influence of socialism shown at Kiel? 22. What are some of the distinctive features of Hamburg today?

#### SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. How many governments and what kinds are included in the German empire? 2. What is the meaning of the motto over the portal of the Rathaus in Hamburg: "Libertatem quam peperere majores digne student conservare posteritas"? 3. What is the Zollverein which Hamburg entered in 1888? 4. Who owns the gas works and the electric lighting plant of Hamburg? 5. What control has Hamburg over its street car lines? 6. What qualifications must members of the Senate have in Hamburg? 7. Who was Klopstock? 8. What is the population of Germany? How does it compare with that of Great Britain? 9. What five European cities in the fourteenth century, held ducal rank and had the right to a place in the Emperor's Council?

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ALTER JUNGFERNSTIEG—MAIDEN LANE—ON THE BINNEN-ALSTER, HAMBURG



## Beethoven and His Music, I

By Thomas Whitney Surette

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**T**HE period between the dates of Beethoven's birth and death was fraught with great consequences to the civilized world. Events of immense importance followed each other rapidly, and brought about great changes not only in the disposition of power all over Europe and in America, but in social life—dress, manners, modes of thought, etc. The following chronological table will supply a ready reference to this period:

1763	End of Seven Years' War; establishment of the power of Prussia.
1773	First partition of Poland; enlargement of Prussian domain.
1774	First Continental Congress in Philadelphia.
1775	Battle of Concord. George Washington appointed Commander-in-chief of the American Army. Battle of Bunker Hill.
1776	Declaration of Independence.
1777	Surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga.
1781	Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown.
1783	Treaty of Peace with England.
1787	Constitution of the United States drafted at Philadelphia.
1789	Meeting of the States General at Versailles. Fall of the Bastille. Washington elected first President of the United States.
1792	Louis XVI committed to prison.
1793-4	Reign of Terror.
1795-9	The Directory.
1796	Appointment of Napoleon to command the French army.
1799	Napoleon First Consul.
1804-7	Conquest of Western Europe by Napoleon.

1809	Battle of Wagram.
1812	Napoleon's Russian campaign. Declaration of war between the United States and England.
1814	Treaty of Peace (at Ghent) between the United States and England. Napoleon banished to Elba.
1815	Battle of Waterloo.
1821	Death of Napoleon.

Probably no period of equal length in history witnessed an array of events such as these, but it must be kept in mind that we are dealing in this series of articles not so much with outward events, however important, as with the causes underlying them and the effect of these causes on one particular art. The primal cause underlying the two great struggles of this time—the American and French Revolutions—was the desire for individual liberty. Napoleon contributed to this in the Code Napoleon, though his after career was one of aggrandizement. The idea of freedom had been the spring of man's efforts from the earliest times, and its partial fulfillment at this period was bound to affect life in all ways both outwardly and inwardly.

Before considering Beethoven's music let us study his personality for a moment. Born in the university town of Bonn where his father held a small posi-

This is the fifth of a series of nine articles on "German Master Musicians." A partial list in THE CHAUTAUQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Bach (September), by William Armstrong.

Handel (October), Haydn (November), Mozart (December), Beethoven I (January), Beethoven II (February), Schumann (March), by Thomas Whitney Surette.



LUDWIG VON BEETHOVEN  
Dec. 16, 1770—Mar. 26, 1827.

tion in the official world, the boy Beethoven was confronted with a serious problem before his school days were over. His father was intemperate and, at the age of fourteen years, Ludwig had to set to work helping support his mother. His parents were humble people, not peasants like Haydn's father and mother, but of a class not much higher. His mother had been a cook. The boy was made to work hard at his music, and his father seems to have attempted to exploit him as a prodigy. When the father died, the family was thrown upon the slender resources of the children. So Beethoven seems to have had little of the happy childhood both Haydn and Mozart enjoyed. He played

the organ at the age of fourteen as assistant in the Cathedral at Bonn, and seems to have labored with a will at whatever he undertook. He is described as a serious young man, not given to the usual enjoyments of youth, and his friends in Bonn felt sure he was destined to do great things.

The account of his first journey to Vienna and his subsequent permanent settlement there may be read in Grove's Dictionary. It is worth noting that, as a young man in Vienna, he wore the conventional dress of the period, but soon discarded it for a more democratic garb. At all times then, as far as we are able to get view of him, Beetho-



ven was a man of a serious temper whose nature and experience were such as to make him, in a measure, a non-conformist in all matters. We know from his own words how closely he followed the

which had a new purpose. Sincerity had taken the place of conventionality; the *Seigneur* had become the citizen; "all men are born free and equal" was the watchword, or as Burns puts it:

What though on hamely fare we dine  
Wear hoddin gray, an' a' that?  
Gie fools their silks, and knaves their wine,  
A man 's a man for a' that.

For a' that, an' a' that,  
Their tinsel show, an' a' that,  
The honest man, tho' e'er sae poor,  
Is king o' men for a' that.



BEETHOVEN IN HIS STUDY

career of Napoleon, seeing in him a savior of mankind, and bitterly resenting his acceptance of the title "Emperor." Brusque in speech, erratic in behavior, perfectly incalculable in all matters, Beethoven stood as a type of that growing company of thinkers who protested against intellectual and social slavery and who knew no aristocracy save that of the intellect. Unlike Mozart, Beethoven asserted his rights and refused subserviency even to princes.

This glance at Beethoven's personality, coupled with a statement of the stirring times into which he was born, explains, in a measure, how the art of music, which reached in Mozart a climax of perfection, immediately took a new impulse instead of, as is usually the case, experiencing a period of quiescence. Out of this turmoil and travail was born a new art, and one

One other consideration presents itself here: namely, that as regards the means of expression in music, Beethoven's period saw a considerable advance. He was the first great composer to have at his disposal a grand piano; he made skillful use of comparatively new instruments like the clarinet, and felt keenly the possibilities of each voice in the \*orchestra.

The two conditions, then, which we noted in the article on Mozart as not having been fulfilled: namely, that the composer should be accepted as the equal of a writer or painter, and that the art itself should have reached a point where it had become a flexible and adequate medium for the composer—these two conditions were, in the case of Beethoven, fulfilled, and the great advance he made in enlarging the scope of the art of music was due in a measure to this fortunate combination of circumstances.

What was this advance? And how was it expressed? First of all it was an advance in the type or scale of ideas. That is, Beethoven's music impresses the listener as being more serious than that of his predecessors. It does not depend for its effect on beauty alone, but on its sincerity and its human quality. Place alongside a symphonic theme of Mozart's, one of a corresponding nature by Beethoven and the point becomes clear. The following excerpt from the first movement of Mozart's G minor Symphony may be com-

\*The student is recommended to read in this connection the article on "Orchestration" in Vol. II of Grove's Dictionary.

pared with the beginning of Beethoven's \*Fifth Symphony, to the first movement of which this article is devoted.



This theme is lyric; that is, it is in regular verse form, with two measure phrases, four measure sections, and eight measure periods matching a verse of poetry. The accompaniment to it is formal and conventional, and there is in the whole no element of seriousness, no vivid contrast, no dissonant quality. The theme from Beethoven's Fifth Symphony, on the contrary, begins with a startling and significant phrase followed by a pause. The idea is non-lyric, and does not depend on beauty for its effect, but rather on its emotional significance. Here is music expressive of a deeper view of life and full of that struggle which was not only personal to Beethoven but common to his time; music which we feel at once to be of an entirely new type. Almost any melody or theme of Beethoven, save those written when a very young man, has something of this flavor.

What we said—in the article on Mozart—of the development of poetry applies here. Here we have music which aims

To become now self-acquainters  
And paint man man, whatever the issue.

To bring the invisible full into play!  
Let the visible go to the dogs—what matters?

\*The complete Fifth Symphony of Beethoven may be had in the form of specially annotated rolls for the pianola. See note in the September CHAUTAUQUAN,

This motto theme of the Fifth Symphony sounds like a challenge, has in it something of the inevitable. Beethoven himself said of it, "Thus fate knocks at a man's door."

But it must not be supposed that this new music was iconoclastic. We take it for granted that the reader knows how inevitably everything really great in the world of ideas rests on what has gone before; how all things slowly evolve; how small a part of any new work is really original. As Goethe says,

Genius conceives and understands the importance of form at once; and submits to its rules willingly and ungrudgingly. Only the smatterer, only the pretender, misled by vanity, will desire to substitute his limited peculiarity for the unconditional whole, and to excuse his wrong maxims under the plea of an irresistible feeling of originality and independence.

Beethoven's music is always and entirely a natural evolution from that of his predecessors. This may be observed by reference to the following example and to the other illustrative music for this article:





of "Sonata Form" in the Haydn article (page 249 of the November CHAUTAUQUAN) it will be seen that the general form is the same; the addition of the long

Coda, however, gives the movement an immensely greater significance, and saves the Recapitulation from being merely a restatement of the Exposition.

**BEETHOVEN'S FIFTH SYMPHONY, FIRST MOVEMENT, "SONATA FORM"  
STRUCTURAL PLAN**

A	B	*A
EXPOSITION	FREE FANTASIA	RECAPITULATION
I. Introduction (1-5). First Subject (6-21) followed by motif from Introduction (23-24). First Subject restated and prolonged (25-58), the latter part serving to lead to the short introduction to second subject (63-94).	Based on subjects, or motifs from the Exposition. From First Subject (125-179). From Introduction to Second Subject (175-178) coupled with three notes from original motif (178-187). From the Introduction to Second Subject with the last two notes extended, and finally separated (195-238).	I. Introduction (248-252) by full orchestra. First subject (253-302) with interpolated oboe solo.
II. Second Subject (94-110).	From the original motif again (238-248).	II. Second Subject in Tonic Major (307).
III. Closing Theme (95-109) followed by short Coda (110-124).		III. Closing Subject (347).
		IV. Coda (374).

The student is especially directed to play this movement many times, remembering that all great music has to make its appeal not only to the intelligence but to the feelings, and that constant repetition is necessary to the understanding of any symphony.

In the February number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN we shall discuss the three following movements of this Symphony. The student should play over these movements several times in advance of the study to be devoted to them.

In conclusion, the reader should remember that the purpose of these articles will be in a measure defeated if they are looked upon as divorced from history, from the thoughts and deeds of men in the periods with which the articles deal. Even more strongly are they connected with the ideals of life—with the meaning of great men, with the *significance* of history, with the soul of a nation.

For these reasons chapters from Carlyle and Emerson are included in the bibliography. Students should read the complete works from which these chapters are drawn. THE CHAUTAUQUAN for October and November furnishes valuable help for study in connection with our two

articles on "Beethoven." "The Afterglow of the Revolution," and "Reaction and the Republican Revival," by Frederic Austin Ogg, both throw much light on the events of the period during which Beethoven was composing some of his greatest works.

Above all, however, the student must think. All written and spoken words imparting knowledge are futile until that not common operation of the mind has taken place. "Knowledge is of no use without intelligence. What is the use of lighting additional candles for the blind?"

**REVIEW QUESTIONS**

1. What analogies can you make between the Fifth Symphony of Beethoven and the works of any contemporaneous author? 2. Between the structure of the First Movement of this Symphony and any other work of art or literature? 3. What estimate do you make of Beethoven's character. 4. What is the difference between his themes and those of Mozart?

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\*In the diagram on page 249 of the November CHAUTAUQUAN the words "or coda" at the head of the third column should have been omitted.

# Recent Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare

## Contemporary Psychology

By James Rowland Angell

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**I**N the mind of the average man there are probably few things so supremely unimportant for the welfare of society as psychology. Certainly it is true, as Kant said of philosophy, that psychology bakes no bread. Moreover, it builds no bridges, constructs no engines, makes no laws and paints no pictures. It seems remote in its interests from most of the great practical undertakings of the social organism and apparently it does not even contribute to the amusement of mankind. Under such circumstances a discussion of its relation to social progress may at first blush strike the casual reader as simply a fatuous effort to demonstrate the undemonstrable. But a broader and keener scrutiny of the situation will reveal radical errors in such a view, and we shall find ourselves embarrassed far less by the difficulty of exhibiting these fallacies, than by the necessity for selecting from among the numerous available instances those cases which best illustrate the point at issue.

In attempting to measure social progress we are inevitably beset by the temptation to employ as standards some of the more palpable physical signs of change. Our thoughts turn at once to telegraphs and railroads, to telephones and automobiles, to the Brooklyn bridge and the skyscraper, to the electric light and the patent breakfast food. These and their congeners, designed to annihilate time and space, to revolutionize industrial methods, or to contribute to one or another of our creature comforts, are the things which loom

largest in the usual inventory of progress. With such matters psychology has, indeed, only the slightest contact. But the social structure has in it elements other than the merely physical. Social interests overflow any such boundaries at a thousand points, and social advance in affairs of mind and spirit is none the less genuine, because more difficult accurately to gauge than the corresponding advance in the mere mastery of matter. In much of this progress within the realm of mind we shall find that psychology plays an important part. Furthermore, there are a few particulars in which the influence of psychology reaches out beyond the purely mental and impinges upon the physical itself.

Before we come to close quarters with details, it behooves us, with a view to avoiding certain familiar misapprehensions, to call to mind the remarkable transformation which psychology has undergone in the last quarter century. The old-fashioned psychologist of a generation ago was a pertinacious person of patient demeanor, who ensconced himself amid comfortable surroundings and with the assistance of suggestions from Aristotle, Locke, Kant, Hegel and other philosophers made out as much as he could of the constitution of his own mind. What he accomplished in this way was often admirable, but it was necessarily circumscribed in significance, because the field of work was ridiculously incomplete and the method employed hopelessly inadequate. Nowadays we have specialists in each of a

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This is the third of a series of articles on "Recent Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare." The following articles, contributed by Professor H. W. Conn, have already appeared: "Bacteriology: Food, Drink and Sewage," September; "Bacteriology: Contagious Diseases," October.

half dozen distinct fields (*e. g.*, child psychology, abnormal psychology and physiological psychology) and methods have been elaborated and refined beyond the possibility of satisfactory description in a paper of this character. Modern psychology is, therefore, not to be identified as often occurs in popular impression, either with the study of ghosts, telepathy and mind-reading on the one hand, or with the scholastic analysis by the psychologist of his own mind on the other. It is a much broader and more complex affair than these misconceptions would imply. Its task is the complete understanding of consciousness in all its forms and wherever found.

One of the great avenues along which advance has of late been made, especially in this country, is that of elementary education. Whether the developments which have occurred have all been for the better or not, there can at least be no question that psychology has been responsible, directly or indirectly, for many of them. A few specific instances may serve to make this clear.

Every progressive teacher of the present day believes in so organizing the school curriculum as to appeal in the largest possible measure to children's actual interests. The old ideal conceived of education as consisting largely in the acquirement of a certain amount of information, which some time or other in the remote future would probably be of value. If the child found the assimilation of this material tedious and repellent and stupid, so much the worse for the child. Willy-nilly through the mill he must go—pushed, pulled, coaxed and threatened, but somehow jammed through. The result of this process was said to be the attainment of a high moral courage, a fine capacity to face and conquer the disagreeable, together with a considerable fund of knowledge. It is to be added that a few unnatural children found the process positively agreeable. There were rewards as well as penalties, and for the favored ones

who captured these trophies the system had a pleasant savor. To large numbers of children, however, the process at its best was irksome, at its worst insufferable.

Now why has the feeling of teachers changed about this matter? Certainly not because in the conduct of a school it is easier to cultivate the children's interests than to follow the old well-trodden paths. No, far from it! The old rule-of-thumb procedure is often far easier for the teacher and can be carried out by a much lower grade of intellect than is required by the new régime. The change is largely attributable to the illumination which has come from psychologists regarding the nature and meaning of interests.

An interest is a vital center of energy in the mind, the expression of a nascent power. Interests are the great determining forces in the development of the will. They represent the natural heritage of motor tendencies with which each child is endowed and by virtue of which each differs somewhat from his neighbor. It is hardly too much to say that a well-trained will is simply a will which represents thorough systematization and organization of interests. In such a will is embodied all the vital motive power of the individual in its most concentrated and efficient form. Caprice and whim are powerless to cope with such consolidated forces.

Once this conception of interest had penetrated the pedagogical head and heart, it was promptly appropriated and put in practice. If a well formed and stable character has a vital relation to the coördination of interests, and if interests really betoken and foreshadow latent powers, then it becomes a solemn duty of education to take cognizance of them and utilize them as far as possible. Undoubtedly in the well-intentioned effort to secure this result, many foolish measures have been adopted. The danger of ruinous discontinuity of development, the danger of mistaking fancies for interests, the

danger of merely titillating an interest instead of disciplining it, the danger of encouraging laziness and shirking—these and many similar risks have to be fairly faced and fought against. But in the meantime the average child in our best schools feels a real delight and sense of power in his work which has often been denied to his forebears, and for this change psychology may fairly claim much credit.

Another similar change for which psychology is entitled to a measure of praise is found in the thorough revision of the curriculum and the extensive modifications of method which have come about under the influence of the common-sense Herbartian doctrine of apperception. Stripped of its technical terminology this doctrine simply means that all advance in knowledge consists of the union of the new with the old. A new idea must have some live points of contact with that which we already know, otherwise it can never get within our comprehension. The wholly strange is the wholly unintelligible. From this point of view the order in which the studies are introduced into the curriculum has been submitted to the most painstaking scrutiny, to the end that each new subject may be superimposed upon the widest and best foundations. And in the actual work of instruction every effort is made by well-trained teachers to bring out all the important relations which a subject has to the various phases of the child's life.

We might go on and multiply instances of this kind at considerable length. There are some particularly interesting ones touching the treatment of the adolescent period in school life, the diagnosis of fatigue and abnormal conditions in general. But these are sufficient to show that in education psychology has played a very genuine part, and it is safe to predict that in the future it will appear more, rather than less, significant.

Modern life among Christian peoples is profoundly religious or scandalously

irreligious, depending upon your point of view. If religion is interpreted as meaning literal adherence to the doctrine of spiritual inspiration, if it is identified with formal intellectual assent to complicated theological systems, then, undoubtedly, this is a spiritually depraved and godless age. But if religion is in any way identifiable with a fearless love of truth, with a deep solicitude for the welfare of humanity and a genuine passion for the furtherance of human happiness, then this epoch may fairly lay claim to a religious spirit as sincere as any the world has ever known.

One of the latest and most characteristic fruits of this modern religion of large-minded love for truth and humanity, is the psychological study of religious experience. Other days have seen their philosophies and histories of religion. But it has been reserved for our own to attempt the reverent and scientific exploration of the inner mysteries of the religious life itself. To some pious-minded persons this may seem a sacrilegious profanation of holy things. But no dispassionate person can read the rapidly growing literature dealing with this subject without feeling, after making due allowance for a measure of the jejune, that a saner ideal of religious life must ultimately issue from such work.

For instance, as a result of careful investigation it now appears that conversion, which has figured in the history of certain religious sects as a unique and necessary experience, is quite clearly to be regarded as simply a specific manifestation of a general tendency revealed among all peoples. In its most pronounced forms it is most common during adolescence, a fact which is undoubtedly in some degree connected with the physiological changes (the new birth, so to speak) which go forward at that time. It consists primarily in a much enlarged vision of the moral world, with a sense of consecration to the service of the righteous power which rules in it. This widened

outlook may come suddenly as by intuition, or slowly as the result of long reflection. It finds its counterpart among primitive peoples in the ceremonies by means of which the youth is initiated into the responsible life of the tribe. In its more violent forms, as sometimes witnessed during evangelistic revivals, it is often unquestionably vicious, leading like other excesses to reactionary after-effects which are morally and religiously deplorable.

The essentially hypnotic influences by which many revivalists work are clearly demonstrated in the large mass of data now at hand; and the fact is well established, however shocking it may seem, that the psychological processes by which large groups of persons are simultaneously converted, is one and the same with that by which mobs are brought to work crimes of violence and fury. In neither case is the result a reasoned one. It is simply an expression of surrender to powerful suggestion. Emphatic and oft-repeated assertion in the presence of high emotional tension will produce for the moment results of a practical kind putting to shame the calm persuasions of a quieter hour.

In a similar way psychologists have examined the experience known as 'conviction of sin,' which in occasional instances verges upon the abnormality of melancholia. The historical records of the ecstasies of the saints have been carefully analyzed and many persons have given elaborate accounts of the experience of 'reconciliation,' the assurance of salvation, etc., with their accompanying sense of elation, transcending in intensity any other human experience of satisfaction and happiness. The religious life and ideas of children have likewise yielded a rich harvest to the patient investigator. Nothing is, perhaps, more astonishing than the widespread natural interest among children about religious ideas, and the astonishing precocity which many of them display in this direction.

One might go on indefinitely elaborating

the points which this new study is taking up. But sufficient has surely been said to show that in the reconstruction, which is unquestionably going forward among religious beliefs and ideals, psychology is certain to occupy an important place.

One of the most interesting phases of contemporary psychological investigation is found in the study of abnormal, morbid, and unusual mental conditions. Much of the best work in this branch of the science has been carried on by men who call themselves alienists rather than psychologists. But the outcome of their industry is none the less psychology and their methods of procedure are distinctly psychological. Many of the most valuable improvements in the treatment of the insane are based upon psychological principles, upon the betterment of mental hygiene, rather than upon any employment of drugs, save as the latter may contribute to general bodily vigor. Hypnotism has been carefully studied, its power, its therapeutic usefulness and limitations largely determined. Unhappily the medical value of suggestion and hypnotism is far less generally acknowledged than it should be by regular practitioners, and in consequence thereof we find quacks fattening from its use in every corner of the land, and at least two of the great sectarian movements of our day are employing it as their chief stock in trade.

An immense amount of effort has gone into the attempt to determine scientifically the genuineness of telepathy, clairvoyance, and spirit communication. Upon this question the camp of psychologists is bitterly divided against itself. By far the larger contingent regards the alleged evidence for these unusual modes of communication between minds as puerile and inconclusive. A few hardy souls, however, keep up the fight and vigorously maintain that our ordinary mode of communication with one another *i. e.*, through the senses, is not the only mode. They maintain that facts are now available which afford a scientific demonstration of

this belief. Indeed, certain of them go further and insist that we have through mediumistic channels contemporary evidence of immortality. Meantime, both parties to the contention are heartily agreed that a large proportion of all the advertising mediums and clairvoyants are frauds. Evidently, where authorities conflict, the layman must suspend judgment, or else perhaps on democratic principles accede to the negative verdict of the majority.

The revolutionary significance for our moral and religious practice, which would be involved in an empirical demonstration of the continuance of life after death, requires no discussion. Although the rank and file of plain people probably believe in the immortality of the soul, it is for the most part a faith based on a traditional dogma, which accords with a common desire, rather than a reasoned conviction. Philosophers and scientists have often been inclined to hold the doctrine outright untrue, or at least unprovable. One's influence persists after death as a factor in the cosmos, many of them say, but one's private consciousness probably passes away. This is at best a very pale and uninteresting variety of immortality, compared with that in which men have commonly believed and of which some of our psychologists now assure us. If they can really make good their case, the fact will be of the highest importance.

One branch of psychological inquiry known as physiological psychology might almost equally well be entitled psychological physiology. It has to do with the inter-relations of the body and the mind, and in certain of its aspects it has had most important consequences for surgery and medicine. While it is true that the mind and the brain are connected in a general way as wholes, it is also true that specific parts of the brain are primarily concerned with special functions of the mind, such as vision, hearing, etc. When the optic nerve connections are traced inward from the retina by means of various

methods now known to science, they are found terminating in a definite region in the posterior part of the surface of the cerebrum. Similarly, the auditory nerve is found connected with terminals on the lateral surface of the brain. The motor nerves distributed to the muscles are found originating from other centers in the cerebral cortex, and so we might plot out various functions for which the several cortical areas are seemingly indispensable. When any one of these regions is seriously injured by wounds or by disease, we meet with disturbances in the corresponding psychical functions.

Now, when a man comes to a surgeon with some form of paralysis, or epilepsy, or sensory disorder, it is not infrequently possible, by the application of such facts as we have just described, to connect his disease with the presence of a tumor or lesion of some kind in a particular part of the brain. The surgeon is thus able to localize the probable origin of the disturbance, an operation is performed, the disturbing substance removed, and the patient restored to health.

Over and above the immediate practical value of these modern discoveries, there is to be recognized their significant theoretical consequences. In the light of such facts as have been thus disclosed Descartes' conception of the soul as placidly perched upon the pineal gland within the brain must be relegated to the same limbo where dwells the primitive notion that the heart is the soul's corporeal habitation. Naïve theories of this kind can never again be entertained.

Experimental psychology, which is the most typical and progressive phase of modern psychology, has its important bearings in no single point of contact with other interests. It is rather a spiritual leaven, permeating with its influence all branches of psychological inquiry. If you would untangle with most scrupulous exactitude the intricate mechanism of memory, you must use the devices and procedure of the experimentalist.

Would you understand with precision the complexities of color vision, the peculiarities of the sense of rhythm, the principles of the perception of tone; would you learn exactly what occurs during a choice or an act of will; would you discover the intimate laws which govern the connection among our ideas; then you must in each and every case consult the experimentalist. It is, therefore, hardly possible without causing misapprehension to say *Lo, here!* or *Lo, there!* when asked to point out the practical bearing of experimental work. All the other paragraphs of this paper really embody in a greater or less degree the results of experiment. Certain of these simply reflect the influence of its spirit, whereas others involve appropriation and application of specific facts and principles which have sprung from it. It deserves to be added, however, that in a matter so practical as advertising, experimental psychologists have been appealed to for advice by business men and the results of their experiments have been adopted.

In scanning the intellectual horizon for news of the mind, psychologists have naturally turned to study the psychic life of animals. If the evolutionary doctrine is correct in its implication, there seems to be no reason why we should not discover the forerunners of our human minds in a study of the consciousness of animals. The results of these studies are so at variance with popular preconceptions, that the author despairs of expounding them in a convincing way in the small space which can be devoted to the subject. In the propagation and fostering of these popular misconceptions the stories of certain of our distinguished writers are efficient agencies.

Put briefly, two important results of such experimental observations on animals are (1) to show that very large portions of the supposedly intelligent acts of the lower animals, such as the ants and bees, are purely reflex and instinctive, probably involving little or no actual consciousness; and (2) to demonstrate that

only in the rarest instances do animals accomplish anything which could fairly be called making an inference. Their usual method of dealing with a new problem is the haphazard try-try-again method. Once success has attended their efforts, certain of the higher quadrupeds show themselves very quick in their ability to solve the problem over again, thus displaying alert use of memory. But the most intelligent animal remains in the condition of the little child who can be taught to do certain simple little things by rote, but who cannot be counted on for any original ability in handling a new situation.

The animals make up in wariness and persistency much of what they lack in spontaneous intelligence. But the gap between the adult man of civilization and the most intelligent of the apes is far in excess of any disparity immediately suggested by their bodily constitution. Undoubtedly, there is a corresponding difference in the intricacy of their respective brain structures, but this is a matter of microscopic demonstration. From the standpoint, then, of our general view of humanity, we must admit that through some fortuitous development of his brain man has so far transcended the intelligence of the orders from which he arose that even comparison is difficult. But such considerations touch the life and thought of men only in their larger outlooks, and have only such practical import as belongs to the remaining phases of psychology yet to be mentioned.

In the formation of the attitude of thoughtful persons toward the larger social and philosophic problems of the day, psychology plays a conspicuous part. For example, on reading a contemporary treatise on sociology, one is often at a loss to determine whether one is really engaged with psychology or sociology. He learns that the forces which operate in society are, after all, simply the forces which operate in the minds of the men who make up the social order, and to understand the one he is

therefore invited to analyze the other. The growth of the social consciousness in the individual is traced, the operation of social traditions in the form of imitation is explained, the social and racial character of emotion and instinct is exhibited, and so from one point to another he is led by the sociologist through the mazes of psychology.

In philosophy, too, the movement just at present is distinctly toward psychology and psychological methods. The problem of the relation of mind and matter, the problem of the nature of reality, the problem of determining the nature of right and wrong, true and false, beautiful and ugly, one and all these puzzles are now increasingly attacked from the standpoint of psychology. What do the distinctions with which these problems deal *mean* in the *life* of the individual? How

do they arise in *his experience*? What part do they play in *his fate*? These interrogations are typical of the forms in which philosophy is now asking its questions, and these are psychological forms. They appeal for their settlement to an analysis of the structure and function of consciousness. Whether or not sociology and philosophy play any significant part in determining the direction taken by the current of social movement, or whether they simply reflect the significance of that movement after it has occurred, is a question which need not be entered upon here.

For education, then, for religion, for medicine, for sociology and for philosophy, not to mention certain minor interests, psychology has a message; and if this be granted, no one can question that social progress owes something to the psychologist.

# How the American Boy Is Educated

## Changes in the Common School Curriculum

By Walter L. Hervey

Formerly President of Teacher's College; Member of the Board of Examiners,  
New York City Schools.

**A**NY parent who will compare the school studies of his children with those of a generation ago will be struck by the number and the extent of the changes which have taken place. New subjects of study have been introduced; old studies have been essentially changed. Subjects formerly taken in the high school are now begun in the grades. The curriculum has been expanded and enriched. Children passing

through the grades of a modern school, come in touch with a wealth of facts, interests and activities which were formerly undreamed of.

These changes have arisen through the operation of definite causes which it is worth while to study. A generation ago the idea was prevalent that the purpose of school studies was to afford mental discipline. The several studies were thought of, and were used, as whetstones of the

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This is the fifth of a series of nine articles on "How the American Boy Is Educated." In this series Mr. Hervey has undertaken to give a picture of the various and contrasting conditions under which the American boy is being built into a man through education. The following articles have already appeared: Education and the American Boy, September; Home Education, October; Bodily Basis, November; Schooling in Country and in City, December.



corresponding faculties of the mind. A curriculum once established on this basis would never have to be changed, unless, indeed, some change took place in the faculties of the mind—a new faculty arising which might require a new subject for its disciplining. The theory which is nowadays becoming prevalent and which determines in great measure the choice of studies in the school curriculum has already been referred to in this series as the theory of adjustment. What culture, efficiency and power does society demand of this individual? What must this boy know? What must he be able to do? What must he be interested in? What must be his ideals, his motives and his resources, if he is to become, in the highest sense, a member of society? These are the questions which are taking precedence of the old question, What do this child's powers require for their exercise and development? Not that the curriculum of today is not developing powers and sharpening faculties as well, if not better, than before; but rather that in the pursuit of a higher aim, we reach the lower—and reach it more surely and more easily. This change in education is analogous to the familiar change in religion whereby one finds himself less exercised about his personal salvation and more interested in serving his fellow men—and wins salvation through serving.

It is only fair to add that the full significance of this principle is by no means universally grasped. Its effects, however, are clearly and increasingly apparent in American schools.

This phrase "adjustment to environment" and the other expressions which have grouped themselves around it, as "community life," "socialization," "present life for present purposes"—if they are, or are to be, controlling ideas in determining what the American boy shall study when he goes to school, must not lapse into the limbo of cant. The following paragraphs are written with the intention of putting into them something of the

life and reality that they should contain.

Every child born into the world is surrounded, played upon, and ministered to by forces of nature: his body is composed of chemical elements, exerts physical energy, is a product of biological evolution, and is vitally related to plants, animals, the earth and the elements. The same child is also born into a human environment: he is surrounded by human beings, ministered to by human activities, enmeshed in human customs and institutions, subject to human laws. He, the newest comer, is the last link in an endless, interwoven chain, every other link of which is vitally related to himself; he is successor, contemporary, ancestor, all in one. His mind, moreover, is woven of the stuff of every other human mind, and is made in the image of God. This complex of persons and things, of activities and relations, of forces and powers, constitutes his environment. He cannot advance one step as a human being except by coming into vital touch with this environment. He cannot come into vital touch with this environment without thereby experiencing development, nurture, and spiritual quickening.

Because the child cannot at first truly interpret or rightly respond to the world environment, a special environment must be made to order for him. This is furnished by the home and by the school. It is the business of the school to bring bodily within school walls a modified, yet true, copy of the outside world. This reduced copy of world facts, activities and relations, we call the curriculum. It is evident that this curriculum cannot be wholly contained in books; that it must be as full of activities as is the world itself; that, as the world is many sided, so must the curriculum have many branches. Because, moreover, men are constantly making discoveries and adding new contributions to civilization; because they are constantly finding new and better ways of doing things; and because new human needs arise out of the changed social con-

ditions—because the world environment is changing, the curriculum must also change. And, further, since in the same country changes do not often occur when the need of them arises, and since in different countries there exist vitally different ideals and conditions, school curricula the world over must be expected to exhibit the greatest variations and contrasts. And so in fact they do.

A striking example of international variation in curricula is furnished by the subject of religion and morals. In Germany the subject "religion" heads every school program in every school in the empire. It is a required study, and much time is allotted to it. In England a definite time is allotted on all school programs to Bible study; but the visitor to a board school in the period assigned to this subject (the first hour in the morning) will notice many empty seats. Some of the children are excused under the "conscience clause," others on account of the alleged necessity of "working." There are many in England who would if they could, gladly replace the "Plagues of Egypt" with efficient moral instruction. In France religious instruction is rigidly debarred, and instruction in morals and civics is rigidly enforced. Every child in the republic is given a systematic course in the fundamental principles of morality and of civic duty, including, it is most interesting to note, "duties to God." The results of a generation of this instruction are said to be highly reassuring. In American public schools there is absolutely no instruction in religion, and practically no formal instruction in morals; the chief dependence being upon the atmosphere and organization of the school, the personality of the teacher, and the incidental training in morality conveyed by the regular subjects of instruction.

Sometimes the mere arrangement of the school room will give a key to the kind of curriculum there employed. In the familiar and time honored type of school room furniture *seats* predominate. There is ap-

parently little opportunity for activities other than reading and writing, ciphering and drawing. The aspect of such a school room must be discouraging to a child who is used to the freedom and activity of the playground, the street, or the farm. One little girl expressed this feeling when she said that the thing she did not like about school was that there she had to "sit around so much of the time." A more modern and certainly more attractive kind of school room furniture is seen in a certain school located in the city of New York which has been largely responsible for the wide introduction of one fundamental change in school methods and activities, and which is worthy of being followed in other respects also. In the first four grades of this school, there is a work bench in every room. The desks are ingeniously constructed so as to be readily transformed from reading desks to drawing tables. Each desk is mounted on rollers, and can be easily got out of the way. When the children gather for class recitation, instead of forming stiff rows, or sitting so that one child has his back turned to twenty or thirty others, the children gather around the teacher in compact, irregular, sociable groups.

I have thought that a good idea of how differently American school boys spend their time, might be given by following typical boys through one school day, thus securing a cross-section of one fiber of the curriculum. Accordingly I have done this with a number of boys, the data regarding three of whom, aged 10, 11 and 13 years, respectively, are here given. The first gives in his own words and with his own spelling, an account of a day in a district school in Massachusetts. The school is situated ten miles from a railroad and two miles from the boy's home.

School began at 9.00. We have devotions first. These consist of Reading from the Bible, the Lord's Prayer, and singing of songs.

My first study period comes at this time in which I study my geography, 9.15 to 10.30.

At 10.30 comes recess for 15 minutes, 10.45.

10.45 to 11.30 comes the geography class. Today the topic is the Po and the Apennines.

From 11.30 to 12.00 is another study period in which I study my arithmetic. I also study my spelling. Then we have the noon recess. (One hour.)

The first thing in the afternoon comes writing and then spelling, 20 minutes.

A study period until half past two, 1.20 to 2.30.

Recess comes then, 2.30 to 2.45. 2.45 to 3.00 study period.

At 3.00 comes my arithmetic class.

After that comes reading. Today the lesson story is *The Legend of Indian Corn*.

Then we have language on some days but today we did not. School closed at 4.00.

The following is a letter written by a rural New Yorker, aged 13, who gives a glimpse of school life in a village of about 1,600 inhabitants:

School begins at 9.00 o'clock in the morning. From 9.00 to 9.10 o'clock the fifth, sixth and seventh grades have chapel. We sing songs and say the Lord's Prayer. From 9.10 to 9.35 is B grammar. This is a review of definitions, participles and infinitives. The teacher has us diagram sentences on the board and then explain them. While the A class is having arithmetic the Bs study arithmetic. From 10.00 to 10.35 o'clock we have music. Miss B is the teacher. Then from 10.35 to 11.15 o'clock is A geography. The Bs study spelling. Then comes spelling from 11.15 to 11.30 o'clock. We write the words in blanks or spelling books. The Bs have arithmetic from 11.30 to 12.00. This consists of a review of definitions, the principles to find the area of different things, and the tables of measurement. Sometimes the teacher will give us an example to work on the board. At 12.00 o'clock we are dismissed and go to our dinners.

The first bell rings at 10 minutes past 1.00 o'clock. The second and last bell rings at 1.15 o'clock. When the room is quiet we have roll-call. The A and B class have drawing or general lessons till 1.40 o'clock. We have drawing Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday, and general lessons Thursday and Friday. From 1.40 to 2.05 is A grammar. During this time the

B class study their grammar for the next day. Then the B reading from 2.05 to 2.30 o'clock. The teacher calls on different ones in the class to read. The time from 2.30 to 2.50 is A reading. The Bs study geography. From 2.50 to 3.00 o'clock is writing. The last subject of the day is B geography. This is a review of the world. At 3.30 o'clock we are dismissed.

I have learned part of carpeting, plastering and papering, But I will learn the rest up in the eighth grade.

Mamma has been cleaning the sitting room and dining room this week.

I hope I have written this letter alright. I think I had better close as it is getting late I am getting tired.

The following outline indicates the program of a boy aged 11 in a private school in New York City. It was prepared by one who followed the boy through an entire school day.

Nine o'clock opening exercises. 9.10 to 10, United States History, (Miss H.). The lesson is upon the Constitution of the United States and involves the following questions: For what purpose does the United States need revenue? For what purpose does this school need revenue? Give an example of direct tax. What is an indirect tax? Give an example. What did the strict constructionists believe? How did the interpretation of the Constitution divide the people into two parties? What was the elastic clause? Name some things for which the community should be grateful to Alexander Hamilton. How does the protective tariff protect American goods? (There was in this connection another pertinent question; but I never happened to come across any evidence that the possible abuses of the protective tariff were adequately presented to the children in American schools.)

10 to 10.30, French (Mrs. B.). The teacher puts on the blackboard a colored picture of a Swiss scene. In the foreground is a little house, a stream with a bridge over it, and children playing about. A man is at work plowing; a garden; birds; hens; chickens; in the distance a

castle. The teacher writes in French a series of questions designed to help the children to see what is in the picture. The pupils ask the meaning of some of the words; the teacher answers them in French. The children work eagerly.

10.35 to 11, Music, (Miss Hr.). The children practice for a recital "My heart's in the Highlands," "Spinning Song," "Oh! Country great and glorious."

11.00 to 11.15, recess, during which the children play games in a nearby vacant lot.

11.15 to 11.55, Mental arithmetic (Miss R.). Part of the work was on the basis of the time-honored text book of Warren Colburn; for example: 7 times 7, plus 1, divided by 5, times 10, times 2, divided by 5 equals what? The remainder was correlated with history and with the political environment as follows: What are taxes? For what are taxes used in the United States? Problem: The total expenses of the United States Government in a certain year were \$447,000, of which \$112,000 were expended for war; what per cent was expended for war? A pupil does the work at the blackboard and explains the work as she goes along. Was that money well spent? asked the teacher. "Yes," replied the children without a dissenting voice, "we must defend our country." The per cent expended for the navy and pensions was similarly calculated. The subject of tariff was then considered. What is a tariff? Where is it collected? Does every city have a custom house? What are ports of entry? The terms free list, ad valorem, specific duties, explained. A table of certain customs duties is placed on the board:

Barley 30 cents per bushel.

Blankets 22 cents per pound plus 30 per cent.

Diamonds 60 per cent. (A boy whistles. "Was that an expression of surprise?" The reason for such a high tariff is made plain.)

Glass-plate 8 cents per square foot, etc.

"If barley weighs 48 pounds per bushel,

what would be the duty on 3,500 pounds of barley?" The problem is solved quickly and accurately.

12.00 Grammar (Miss H.). The lesson is on clauses used as subjects and as objects. The children put on the board from their papers sentences prepared at home. The use of clauses is explained by the children. Papers are exchanged, and mistakes put on the board. Those who had no mistakes think of complex sentences and write them at their seats.

12.30 to 1.00 (Mr. J.). Gymnastics and athletics in open field, practice for a contest, sack races, etc. School is dismissed.

For home work the children are to prepare three subjects, spending on them not more than two hours in all. In addition some of the children have at home a piano lesson or a practice period of three-quarters of an hour. One of the boys has his luncheon at 1.20, changes his clothes, plays in the open air from 2.00 to 5.00 (except on dancing school day), practices music from 5.00 to 5.45, studies lessons from 5.45 to 6.30, has supper from 6.30 to 7.00, and between 7.00 and 8.00 studies another half hour, reads, or mulls over his stamp book, or plays a half hour, and so to bed.

It will be noted that the district school boy has spent five and a half hours in school, not counting recess. During this time he has been under the care of one teacher who has divided her time between his class and one or more similar classes into which the school is divided. Two hours and five minutes of his time have been spent in five recitations, three hours and ten minutes in "study"—though it may be doubted whether the boy could put in profitably one hour and fifteen minutes on "The Po and the Apenines." The second boy is under two teachers, and has spent three hours and fifteen minutes in reciting eight subjects. He has spent one hour and fifty minutes in study during school hours. The third boy has spent three hours and forty-five minutes in school, during the whole of which time he

has been engaged in reciting or studying in class under the direction of five different teachers. He has had six different subjects, counting gymnastics; with music and dancing he has had eight subjects and seven teachers. All told, the time spent by him in study and recitation in school and out is five and one-half hours, or fifteen minutes more than the time spent in school alone by the district school boy.

It is evident that such a cross-section does not exhibit fully the character of the curriculum pursued by any of the boys in question. The last-mentioned boy, for example, has on certain days manual training, literature, composition, spelling and penmanship.

In spite of all these forces making for variety in curricula there are forces equally strong that make for unity. Human nature and human life are essentially the same the world over. There is a common heritage of ideals, of human achievements, of sacrifices for humanity. Every great nation has a great literature. Social membership has an identical meaning for every human being. In every civilized community there are trades, occupations, agencies of production and distribution, agriculture, manufactures, commerce, laws, fine arts, philanthropy. Science is a term that knows no geographical limits. The fundamentals of religion and morals are the same for all mankind. If, then, the curriculum is simply the bringing of the outer world into the school room, every curriculum must have the identical elements of religion, history, language and literature, science and mathematics, art and industry. A more detailed presentation of what is today taught in schools along these lines must be reserved until the next article. I wish now, in concluding this one, to touch on the important and neglected question, What subjects and topics already in the curriculum should be omitted?

The history of the common school curriculum during the past generation has

been a history of additions without corresponding subtractions and condensations. It is estimated by a high authority that, with the increase in subjects, in topics, and in detail, the work required of the school boy of the present is double or possibly treble that of a generation ago.

Every new subject and topic introduced has doubtless furnished valid credentials. Some have even so quickened the appetite and enlarged the capacity of the pupil that instead of taking up room they have made more room. This is true of manual training and literature. Both of these have been fought as "fads;" but they have proved that they are able to give such interest in the 3 R's as to pay for the time consumed by them. Mr. Alfred Mosely tersely puts this point, in writing of a certain English school:

Here where so many other things are taught besides reading, the children are found in advance, in reading, of the schools, in the majority of which scarcely anything else is taught. . . . The singular slowness with which the children of our national schools learn to read is in some degree to be attributed to the unwise concentration of the labors of the school on that single object.

The fact remains, however, that expansion and enrichment have not been unalloyed blessings to the American school boy. It has been far easier to get a new subject or topic into the curriculum than to uproot an old subject or topic, however long outgrown. By common consent the curriculum is admitted to be overcrowded, and the children "submerged." The remedy is excision, according to such a criterion as that recently proposed by Professor Frank M. McMurry:

Whatever cannot be shown to have a plain relation to some real need of life, whether it be esthetic, ethical, or utilitarian in the narrower sense, must be dropped.

By way of applying this criterion—to give but a single example—it is proposed to abolish from the arithmetics the subject of percentage and its "cases." The time-honored terms "amount," "differ-

ence," and "percentage" — succulent terms on which every schoolboy in America in the last generation was fed to repletion—are to be stricken from the bill of fare. The "Cases," that once ruled like kings, are to be dethroned. All that is left of their once teeming realm is, according to Professor David Eugene Smith, this pair of petty problems, one of which is straight algebra, and the other plain multiplication:

1. 6 per cent of \$250 is how much?
2. If 104 per cent of  $x$  equals \$7.28, what does  $x$  equal?

If the standard of "mental discipline"

still obtained, we might never cease teaching "cases," or indeed anything else. Everything teachable affords *some* mental discipline. But when the chief standard becomes, Does this thing meet a need in life? Do "cases" exist out in the world? we are instantly freed from the teaching of what never had existence except in schools, and are freed for the teaching of those useful, interesting, real, and vital matters with which the out-of-school world is filled, and which are clamoring and pressing for admission to the little, yet very real, world of the modern school.

# Nature Study

## The Evergreens II

By Anna Botsford Comstock

Bureau of Nature Study, Cornell University.

### CEDARS



ARBOR VITAE

We have two cedars common in New York State, the red and the white.

*The White Cedar or Arbor Vitae:* This is a common hedge tree, and its flat foliage is very beautiful when examined carefully through a lens. It looks as if it had been pressed with a flatiron. The arbor vitæ grows in wet places, as well as along streams where it makes almost impenetrable forests. In the Adirondacks it grows at an altitude of 3,500 feet.

*The Red Cedar:* The twigs of this and their surrounding leaves have not been flattened as in the arbor vitæ, but each little twig looks like a braid of green yarn. There are two kinds of leaves on the red cedar, the green ones which you see, and some other pointed needle-shaped leaves, which you feel if you put your hand

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This is the fourth of a series of home Nature Study Lessons for the parents and teachers prepared by the Cornell Bureau of Nature Study. Lessons for children of the Chautauqua Junior Naturalist clubs will appear each month in *Boys and Girls*, Ithaca, New York. The following articles have already appeared in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: Leaves, October; Seed Distribution, November; Evergreens I, December.



BALSAM FIR



NORWAY SPRUCE

against the foliage. The fruit of the red cedar is a bluish berry.

#### THE BALSAM FIR

The balsam fir is the only native fir tree common in New York State, though the silver fir of Europe is planted more or less in our parks. Whoever has been fortunate enough to have been in camp in the North Woods, and has reposed upon a bed made from the fragrant branches of this tree has something delightful to remember. And those who have not used the branches for a bed may have laid their heads upon pillows filled with the dried leaves of this beneficent and health-giving tree. We have such a pillow, prepared fifteen years ago, which is still very fragrant.

The balsam fir is often planted as a shade tree, and is likely to be found in the yards of farm houses, rising, a black and graceful spire, far above the house top. This fir may be distinguished from the spruce by the leaves, which are flat and thin, and very blunt at the tip, and by the fact that the winter buds are protected by a coat of resin, which makes them look as if they were varnished.

#### THE SPRUCES

In the mountains of New York State this most valuable tree—the spruce—abounds. There are three species, the white, the black and the red. The black spruce is so called because its foliage massed against the mountain side looks black, whereas the white spruce is much lighter in color, being grayish green. The cones of the white spruce are slender and elongated, being at least twice as long as wide, while those of the black and red species are much thicker in proportion. The red and the black species were for a long time considered one, and are regarded so now by lumbermen. However, the botanists consider them distinct. The cones of the red spruce fall during the first winter, while the cones remain upon the black spruce several years, and this is the chief way of distinguishing them. Birch beer is made from both the black and the red spruce, and chewing gum also; the white spruce has a disagreeable odor.

The spruce has a leaf which is four sided; in cross section it is more nearly diamond shaped than square. The cone

hangs down instead of standing up and matures in one year.

The Norway spruce is planted everywhere, and may be taken as a type for our study. It is common in our parks and planted grounds, and is sometimes used for hedges.

## THE HEMLOCK

The hemlock during its youth and middle age is the most graceful and beautiful of all the evergreens, and in its old age it is the most picturesque. There is no prettier sight in all the tree world than a symmetrical, vigorous hemlock, when the new, vivid light green growth tips every twig, making exquisite contrast to the dark dull green of the older foliage. And there is no such picture of old age and loneliness as the old hemlock towering above its fellow trees with its upper branches bare and black extending helplessly to the four winds of heaven. It is a pity that a disease has attacked our hemlocks in the East and is surely though slowly killing all that are mature. It is as if they were discouraged at the wanton destruction of their species by

man and had died rather than suffer the ignominy of the axe.

*The Ground Hemlock:* This is a low, straggling shrub not more than four or five feet high, which has foliage resembling that of the hemlock, except that the leaves are longer and bright green on both sides. However, it is not a hemlock at all, but a yew, and its fruit is a red berry.

## QUESTIONS ON THE ARBOR VITAE

1. Take a twig, remove the leaves and describe their relation to the twig. Draw a bit of the spray showing the shape and arrangement of the leaves. Use a lens for this.
2. Are you acquainted with the arbor vitæ as a separate tree in hedges?
3. Describe the cones.
4. How many scales are there on the cones and where are the seeds borne?
5. What is there about the foliage and the way it grows that fits it for a hedge plant?

## The Red Cedar

6. Describe the foliage of the red cedar giving the shape of the green leaves, as well as the sharply pointed ones.
7. Is the spray of the leaf four sided or cylindrical?
8. Describe the fruit carefully, giving its color and form.
9. How many seeds are there in each fruit?



GROUND HEMLOCK  
Growing against a bank.



WHITE PINE AND HEMLOCK  
Note difference in bark.





### HEMLOCK

Showing old and young cones.

10. For what is the wood of the red cedar used?

#### *The Balsam Fir*

11. If you know the balsam fir describe it.
12. Where does Canada balsam, the clear gum in which we mount microscopic objects, come from?
13. Where does it occur on the tree?
14. How are the leaves arranged on the twigs, that is, do they project in all directions?
15. When the tree grows in the open is the bole bare for any distance above the ground?
16. How do the trees grown in the woods differ in this respect from those in the open?

#### *The Norway Spruce*

17. What are the shape and length of the leaves?
18. How many lengthwise ridges has each leaf?
19. Are the leaves arranged all around the twigs?
20. How in relation to the twig are the points directed?
21. What is the shape, size and color of the cone?
22. Where on the twig is it borne?
23. Does it hang down or stand up?
24. Figure or describe a seed.
25. In the old trees do the twigs stand out

all around the branches or do they hang down?

26. How is this arrangement of the twigs on the branches useful to the tree in its native climate?

27. Do the Norway spruces when standing in the open show any bole below the branches or do the branches grow to the ground?

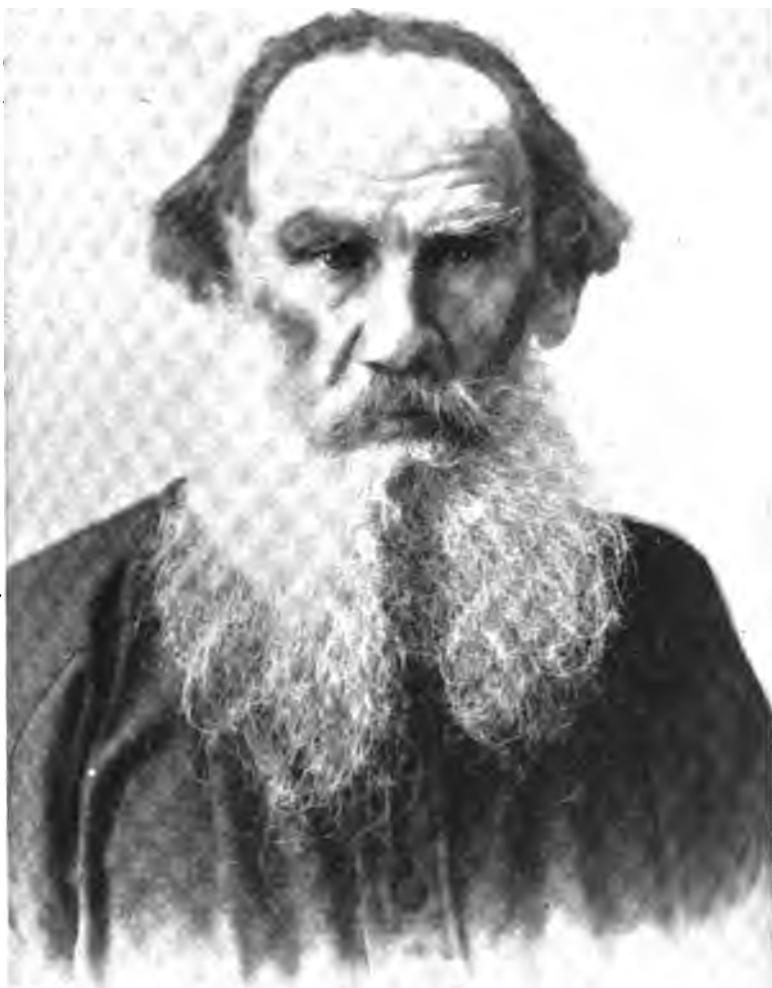
#### *The Hemlock*

28. Describe the tree.
29. Do the branches extend straight out or droop at tips?
30. Describe the foliage.
31. Describe or sketch a hemlock cone.
32. Are the cones borne at the tip or on the side of the branches?
33. Does the cone mature in one season?
34. Describe or sketch the seed.
35. What industry has caused the destruction of the hemlock?
36. For what parts of building construction is it used?
37. Name its special value as building timber?

#### *The Ground Hemlock*

38. In what direction do the branches extend?
39. Is there a main stem?
40. Figure or describe the fruit.
41. How many seeds does it contain?
42. Is it edible?

# Modern European Idealists



COUNT LEO NIKOLAIEVICH TOLSTOY

Count Leo Nikolaievich Tolstoy is perhaps the most widely known Russian of today. His personality, his teachings, stand out in bold relief against the despotic superstition of his compatriots. Born in 1828, educated at the University of Kazan, commander of a battery in the Crimean War, Count Tolstoy has seen most of the principal changes in his country during the past century. Scholar, novelist, sociologist, reformer, religious mystic, he stands forth for the highest of Slavic ideals. With the abolition of serfdom, he saw the possibility of uplifting the peasantry, and, in their behalf, he has devoted his best effort, living their life, and proclaiming their cause. An enemy to war, he depicts in his "Sevastopol," and in his later works, its horrors. With a philosophical religion of his own, he measures all things by what he considers the standards of Christ—having nothing to do with the idea of militant patriotism, believing rather in a world citizenship on a basis of universal peace. A prolific writer, he has, for over half a century, scattered broadcast his philosophy—wherever men read. Each of his books—novel, drama, study—has a motif, opening to men of all creeds and beliefs a field for earnest thought. In spreading his ethical teachings, he has had to stem a powerful tide of bigotry in his own country. But notwithstanding this, the loftiness of his purpose has challenged the admiration of even his bitterest opponents.

Count Tolstoy's principal works are: "Childhood," "Boyhood," "Youth," "Sevastopol," "War and Peace," "Anna Karenina," "My Confession," "What Is to Be Done?" "The Death of Ivan Ilyitch," "Kreutzer Sonata," "Work while You Have the Light," "The Kingdom of God is Within You," and "What is Art?"



## About Play and Playgrounds

"Waterloo was won on the playing grounds of Eton."—*Wellington*.

"The balance wheel of a nation turns on the well-directed play of childhood."—*Miss Alice M. Felke, before National Educational Association*.

"Both in the home and in the school the play spirit should be fostered. The home where father and mother become as little children and play regularly and systematically for an hour or two a day with their boys and girls is a type of what all homes should be. There is no home so rich or so poor that parents cannot through play enter into the lives of their children."—*Miss A. M. Felke before N. E. A.*

"If play is justly a permanent feature in college and university life, there certainly must be a place for it during all the years that precede that period, and yet we find many school-rooms today where the aspect of the teacher is almost funereal, and where to smile, much less to laugh heartily, would be regarded as an offense against good order."—*S. T. Dutton in "Social Phases of Education."*

"The most urgent need of the city child is physical educative work and spontaneous play. . . . Nothing is more antique than the instruction of English boys in the so-called public school. Their play, however, makes men of them. . . . It gives the efficiency to fight their country's battles, to spread her commerce over the whole earth, to rule inferior people to their own good, to found and develop new nations."—*Charles DeGarmo in "Interest and Education."*

"We cannot give all these children homes in the country, we cannot give them all even an outing there; but we can give them playgrounds in the city; a very little plot here and there will do. We have reserved great parks and squares which we permit them to look at and sometimes to venture on. But as playgrounds, these are practically useless; they are accessible to comparatively few. A vacant building lot in the proper district is far more to the purpose. Happy is the boy who lives near one!"—*Frank M. Chapman in St. Nicholas*.

"As between space for playground and ce for ornamentation, other things being

equal, there can be but one conclusion held, namely, that games are immeasurably superior to ornamentation."—*E. R. Shaw in "School Hygiene."*

"This study is emphatic in its proof that one purpose of education, one of the aims of the school, is to prepare for *proper employment of leisure moments*. Child life is largely made up of such moments, and in no class of society do the long hours of work (fourteen to fifteen hours per day) of our grandfathers now prevail; as a people we can say as never before, 'our time is our own.' How to use this time is one of the serious problems of today. It will leave its trace in our physical being, in our moral and mental make-up, in national character."—*T. R. Croswell in Pedagogical Seminary*.

"One does not need to be a very profound student of play to discover that play is not the doing of easy things, as some have supposed. . . . Recent careful studies of the biographies of noted men have shown that in most cases they were leaders in play in boyhood and that many of them kept the play instinct all through their lives. Men who have great capacity for play usually have great capacity for work."—*E. A. Kirkpatrick in Review of Reviews*.

"Play is a preparation for work. It soon ceases to satisfy unless it involves an end to be attained—unless, in a way, it becomes work; and it is no less true, that work, in order to be at its best, must have in it some of the charm of play."—*Dr. J. E. Bradley in Review of Reviews*.

"When we reflect on the unavoidable limitations and mechanical routine of a regular calling we see how valuable is the cheering and humanizing effect of play, both physical and mental, and especially of those games which are calculated to strengthen the social tie."—*Karl Groos in "Play of Man."*

"There is nothing so rapidly recuperative for mental fatigue as spontaneous activity; and yet, on the other hand, there is nothing so helpfully educative as the self-activity engendered in play."—*Dr. H. E. Kratz*.

"The most important function of play is to

educate the individual for his life work in a network of social relationships."

"It is the function of the municipal playground to extend the influence of the conscious educational forces beyond the school-room into the very heart of the child's life and help him to adapt himself to city conditions without loss of physical vigor or mental stamina."—*D. F. Wilcox in "The American City."*

"The great lesson of law as a means of freedom is nowhere so well taught as in well-directed and orderly play. In no other place can a child so fully realize for himself the value of law as on the playground. A teacher who can successfully lead children to play happily in accordance with whatever rules are necessary, is not only forming a public sentiment in favor of orderly and fair play, but she is also preparing the children for good citizenship more effectually than she can possibly do in the school room, where the children have not so keen a personal interest in what is being done."—*Edwin A. Kirkpatrick in "Fundamentals of Child Study."*

"What he (the boy) wants is a hard, lively game; something difficult, dangerous, heroic. This he must have as truly as a flower must have air and sunlight. If he cannot get it in one way, it is his virtue and not his vice that he insists on getting it in another. . . . It is the boys whom we call bad because their actions are frequently inconvenient to their elders, who are being true to their own nature, are doing that specific part of the work of self-development which it is their business to do. . . . The trouble . . . arises from the fact that the boy lives in a different world from ours; a world of adventure, of personal courage; the world of the swift-footed Achilles, of the Vikings, of Nimrod, 'a mighty hunter before the Lord'; a world from which our world of humdrum commercial ideals is still invisible. . . . What the boy is after is manliness, and the demonstration of manliness. He is a keen recognizer of truth in this matter, and if it is, in hard and sober fact, more manly to be able to fight hard, run fast, and play a good game of ball than it is to smoke many cigarettes and, in general, to indulge in greater dissipation than his companions, why, the stronger and better thing will win in the public opinion of the boys among whom it has a chance.

"A marked need of the boy of the 'Big Injun' period, as seen on the playground, is the need of leadership. I have spoken of the lack of constructive and organizing power and the disproportionate strength of the critical faculty in boys of this age. In order to keep them doing

anything beyond the desultory criticism of passers by or the tormenting of one of their own number, it seems usually to be necessary to have some teacher or paid leader on the grounds.

"The gang is simply a perverted expression of this spirit (boyhood's 'age of loyalty'). It is the primitive social group, the kindergarten of the future citizen. . . . Give it a chance, on a properly conducted playground, and the gang will soon show its power of producing the baseball or football team, and it will appreciate the opportunity.

"There is no training of the social consciousness more intense than that of these great national games. . . . It is not a question of self-sacrifice, and no boy would ever use such a term in stating the thing to himself. . . . In the football team the boy is coming to his own as a member of the larger social unit.

"Is not this what we want in the citizen? Not that he shall grudgingly, or as a matter of duty, sacrifice himself to the public weal—although that is, perhaps, the best that most of us can, in most public relations, hope to attain; what we want and shall some day see, is the citizen to whom it does not appear as a sacrifice nor a selfdenial that he shall throw himself with his whole weight and spirit into the life of his city and state."—*Joseph Lee in Educational Review.*



#### ORGANIZATION AND EQUIPMENT OF PLAY- GROUNDS

Two prime requisites of a public playground are (a) an enclosed space and (b) a competent attendant. Enclosure is needed to preserve discipline and for general control of the situation. With an attendant of fair ability to secure regard for the rights of all, and to provide initiative for "something doing," a beginning may be made without equipment.

The essential characteristics of playground helpers, paid or volunteer, are good character, good sense, sympathy, adaptability, love of play, knowledge of some good games, and willingness to follow the policy outlined by the management. The attendants or director may include both employed and volunteer workers though in some cases none are paid for their services; the Christian Asso-

ciation and Turner gymnasiums may be asked for helpers, both junior and senior class leaders having valuable experience in handling groups. Many grade teachers and normal students can direct games—in some cases "cadet" teachers receive their car fare and the experience.

The grounds may be open for certain days, or all the week, for a few hours of the day or from early morning till late at night, during vacation and holidays only or throughout the year. Boys or girls, or both, of all ages may be welcomed at specified hours. Space, income, equipment and helpers will figure in deciding upon the patronage to be accepted.

The beginning may be made by a school, a settlement, a club, the municipality or an interested individual. Elmira, New York, for example, has a well equipped private playground, thrown open to all the lads of the neighborhood.

Beginning, if need be, without apparatus, appliances may be added as finances permit, and the number of patrons make necessary. Care should be taken that every one has space, equipment or leadership for some activity. Nor should there be an excess either of equipment or of personal attention.

"Fancy" apparatus and patented combinations should be avoided. Home made apparatus should follow plans provided by a competent authority.

The following illustrates what can be done in a limited space by careful selection and distribution of apparatus adaptable for differing ages, including benches for a small, though doubtless appreciative adult audience:

Suppose that a city lot 50x80 is available. It should first be graded nearly level and all rubbish removed, leaving the ground safe to play on. An entrance house of light construction may be built near the center, providing shelter for sand boxes or pits, and some means of controlling the entrance and exit. To complete the front, a light frame about 7 feet high, covered with wire netting, may extend to the corners of the lot, and on this can be twined climbing annuals of rapid

growth that will form a screen shutting out curious observers on the street, and if the top is extended over and inward 5 or 6 feet it will form a shady retreat from the hot sun. The sides may be treated as circumstances demand. If they are brick or stone walls, climbers will beautify them; if a rough fence, a wash of light color. A few benches in shady corners should be provided. The apparatus may consist of a long frame with ladders, swings, rings, etc., in the center. At the ends of this frame, lower ones hold see-saws, balance swings and a couple of short swings for little ones. These will entertain 25 or 30 children with ease. At the sides are two round swings or "giant strides," as they are called, from the strides the children make in going round them. These are a never failing source of hearty exercise that will keep another score busy. In the center is a revised edition of "Old Grimes cellar door"—two planks slanting from a central platform. A dozen more will find lots of fun and good balancing exercise on this. Under the shelter, rope or rubber quoits may be played, while in the sand pits the smaller ones build Spanish castles and bombard them to their heart's content. A hundred children can play in this space without crowding. This allows thirty-two square feet for each child, the minimum provided by law in England in connection with every school. The apparatus will cost from \$100 to \$500, according to its construction.

For the older boys and limited space a substantial frame twelve feet high can be arranged with swinging rings, adjustable horizontal bar, inclined ladder, two climbing poles, and sliding poles. If purchased complete this outfit will cost fifty dollars.

A larger outfit requiring the minimum amount of supervision would necessitate for advantageous use a space 60 feet long by about 30 feet wide. The outfit would consist of:

A substantial Georgia pine frame, 16 feet high and 52 feet long, having six 7-foot bays and a 10-foot bay in the center. The base extends out to the footings of the ladders and poles, and is buried one foot in the ground. The frame, base and ladders, etc., form a stiff triangular structure. At the ends are ladders and sliding poles on opposite sides, one acting as a feeder for the other.

In the first two bays from the ends are adjustable vaulting bars. In the two second bays are swings. The third two bays have trapeze bars which, in connection with the two sets of steps form flying swings, a popular device with boys and one which (like the ladder and poles) gives every boy a chance in turn. In the center are three teeter ladders. This frame may be extended or shortened, and at a low cost provides the greatest possible amount of exercise and amusement for the space occupied.

As many swings, teeter ladders, or see saws as desired may be arranged in a continuous line. Bean bags made of strong duck, can be used in many games. Rope quoits are particularly well adapted for playgrounds. Volley ball, a form of hand tennis played with an eight inch ball, is the simplest team game adaptable to any sized space and to all ages but the very youngest. Drinking water without limit for the "unquenchable thirst" of the playground enthusiast, toilet facilities, and as quickly as possible a simple shower bath, should be provided.

"The sand garden or summer playground for little children may be said to center around the sand-box, namely a box like a hot bed (the width of which ought not to exceed ten feet, because if it is wider it becomes difficult to pick a child out of the middle) with a cover which can be locked at night to prevent the sand from being stolen, and which ought," says Joseph Lee, "to fold back to serve as a table to make pies on. Experience shows that the one thing the small child likes to do more than any other is to put sand into a pail and turn it out again."

S. P. McDonald and E. A. Irwin say (in *Charities*):

"Half a dozen or so of our really troublesome boys we gathered into a little group, called them a club, which they promptly named the 'White Stars' and to these boys we stated the necessity of having law and order and fair play prevail. Thereupon they assumed from a very superior point of view, the responsibility of keeping the boys off the swings and

other forms of 'policeman' duty. There were frequent lapses into sin within the ranks of the 'White Stars' themselves and we would often see an offender marched out of the playground by his own friends, sometimes amid hot disputes, and sometimes submissively with a resigned expression of guilt."



#### PLAYGROUNDS AS SOCIAL CENTERS

With the completion of her playground and park system "uniquely equipped for the pleasure and profit of people of all ages and tastes and some of them to be laid out with rare beauty, Chicago will have the finest park system to be found in any city in the world." J. F. Foster, general superintendent South parks, Chicago, explains in *The Commons* (June, 1904, 9:238-240) that "the small parks or playgrounds in most instances provide a play field about 350 feet long, 250 to 300 feet wide. This ground is to be used by the children and young men for playing any sort of game which can be safely played on this area without much restriction, allowing them to play pretty much as they please. Surrounding this play field will be a granite concrete walk from 16 to 20 feet in width, which will be used by the smaller children for roller skating. Each playground will also have commodious outdoor gymnasiums, both for men and women. These gymnasiums will be provided with the usual apparatus, and, in the case of the men's, a suitable running track will be built. There will also be provided a playground for small children, with giant strides, swings, teeters, and hammocks for the very little ones. In connection with this there will be a children's lawn, where little babies can roll about on the grass under the shade of trees; near this will be a wading pool in which children can wade about and sail little toy boats. Sand courts will also be provided with covered seats in connection therewith, and each of the playgrounds will have a band stand and quite



modious concert ground surrounding for afternoon and evening band con-

There will also be in each of the playgrounds a swimming tank or pool varying in size from 80x50 to 150x75. This pool will be enclosed by the large building which will be erected in each of the playgrounds. This building will have all the sanitary accommodations required for the playground, suitable shower and other baths, dressing rooms for those using the tank, and lockers and dressing rooms for both men and women and boys and girls using the gymnasium. It will also have a large room that will be used as an indoor gymnasium during the winter. Kindergarten provision will also be made in this building for the care of the little ones who come to the park during rainy weather. This kindergarten will also be carried on out of doors when the weather is suitable. In addition, the building will be provided with suitable assembly hall, where people of the community can gather for lectures or musical entertainments, or any amusements which are proper.

"There will be in each building several small rooms which can be used for club rooms for the neighborhood—women's, men's, boys' and girls' clubs. There will also be a place for light refreshments, where children can obtain pure milk and good sandwiches practically at cost. It is expected that the accommodations of this building for the people will be entirely without cost to the persons using it. In each of the playgrounds there will be a considerable area, particularly around the margin, reserved for grass, trees and shrubbery, it being thought that a considerable space could not be better used than in the making of the place attractive by the introduction of such things.

"This, in a general way, describes the scope of the small parks or playgrounds. The larger parks will all be provided with the same accommodations for athletic sports as will be found in the playground, only on a more extensive scale.

"Of course, the larger parks will furnish much greater areas for play and much greater opportunities for being beautified with plantation, lakes, etc."



### WHY SOME BOYS ARE "BAD"

In a classification of those arraigned before the Children's Court of Manhattan, Justice Julius M. Mayer thus explains in *Charities* (Nov. 7, 1903, 11:417-8) the large groups of "Mischievous Children:—"

Very many children are arraigned because they engage in playing shinney, football, baseball, and other innocent games on public thoroughfares or build bonfires on the asphalt or other pavements. These acts are, of course, innocent in themselves but are prohibited in the interest of the safety of life, limb or property in our crowded streets. In many of these cases the judges find that the children do not know why these acts are prohibited. The child, of course, must play and until the playgrounds of the city catch up with the needs of the child population, children must necessarily use the streets and play those games or their variations which have been known to all children for all time. A fine or commitment to a reformatory is rarely imposed in such cases, but the judge presiding takes great pains to point out why the game, innocent in itself, must not be played in the streets, and the parent is also instructed, with the result that very few boys offend twice in this particular.

Most boys when asked why they should not throw stones or do other mischievous acts which are dangerous answer 'Because I will be arrested,' but are unable to answer the next question, 'Why will you be arrested?' This class of mischief will be reduced to a minimum by the adequate increase of playgrounds where children may have decent amusement which occupies their time and attention. Even in the absence of adequate playgrounds, much can be done by school-teachers and parents teaching simple lessons in practical civics.



### PLAYGROUNDS FOR ALL CHILDREN

In most interesting fashion a Chicago conference, while considering juvenile delinquency, agreed that the playground is needed for the children of the avenues and

boulevards as well as the less favored ones of the streets and alleys.

Theory and experience dictate that play space should be available at least in the most crowded quarters of the city, and that organized, supervised play shall be provided for all the children of the city, and of the town as well.

Fundamentally the playground is an educational agency, incidentally it must be a morally preventative factor, and yet more incidentally it should be a source of joy and present pleasure to the otherwise dull lives of a dwarfed and deadened childhood.

Because of the educational aspect of the playground the administration may well be an essential part of the public school system. Even where space and equipment are provided by the park board or other departments of the city, the technical administration should be thoroughly organized and directed under school auspices.

But in many communities the playground, as with other phases of school extension, must come from the outside with the necessary initiative, financing and administration provided by a woman's club, parents' association, business men's club, or young people's society.



## FROM MEN WHO KNOW ✓

The following testimonials from St. Louis police officials need no comment, and can be duplicated by like evidence from other cities:

Mathew Kiely, Chief of Police: "From these reports I am convinced that the Civic Improvement League playgrounds are most commendable institutions."

Sergeant Alvin Stangan: "My judgment is that they (the playgrounds) are a good thing, as they keep the small children off the street, where they are most exposed to accidents, keep them from wandering away from home, where they may see and be enticed to commit crime."

Captain Michael O'Malley: "The playgrounds have been of great benefit to the children residing in the neighborhood, and

I consider them a great preventive of juvenile crime and disorder."

The Civic Improvement League Louis claims "that many children have been kept off the streets, accidents have been averted, and the police report a decrease of 50 per cent of juvenile crimes."



## THE HOME OR NEIGHBORHOOD SANDPILE

The educational and recreative possibilities of the home sandpile have been realized by all too few parents. Still less has the augmented value of the neighborhood sand garden been understood. A splendidly educative little community may exist at least for a portion of the day if the pile of sand and group of children can be placed under the direction of a kindergarten, or if members of the cooperating families can serve by turns. Several such neighborhood groups might divide the time of a trained kindergarten and so secure competent supervision at nominal expense.



## TRANSFORMING A LAKE

A great improvement has been effected in the city of Marysville, California, by the transformation of Ellis Lake, which lies in the heart of the city, from a malodorous slough into a picturesque and delightful sheet of water. Formerly the supply from the natural springs that feed the lake was, at some seasons of the year, insufficient to keep the water pure and wholesome. The lake became unsanitary and a menace to the public health. Now, when the water is low, a fresh supply is admitted from the Yuba river which restores the lake to a normal condition. In consequence, the lake is free throughout the year from unwholesome odors and has not only ceased to be a hindrance to the development of the city but has, instead, become one of its advantages. This improvement was brought about wholly through the efforts of Marysville citizens and is a good illustration of the power and value of a little public spirit in improving



local conditons. The success of the experiment was publicly demonstrated by a display of decorated boats on the lake.



#### FROM THE FIELD

Facts about the successful introduction of water meters, by the municipal plant, at Cleveland, Ohio, by Edward W. Bemis, and meter experience at Atlanta, Ga., and other cities appear in the valuable report of the proceedings of the American Water Works Association published by the secretary, John M. Diven, Elmira, New York. The meter system is considered the "coming way of selling water."

The United States Department of Agriculture has just issued a valuable little 48 page pamphlet (*Farmers' Bulletin No. 195*) on "Annual Flowering Plants." It is written by L. C. Corbett, horticulturist of the Bureau of Plant Industry, and is intended to be practical, showing by illustration and description how to raise the commonest of our flower plants, and how to select, and arrange them to the best advantage. Although some of the oldest of our decorative flowers are considered, they are treated in a manner that will be new to many who have known them since childhood. By artificial and scientific means, undreamed of results are shown to be possible. Sprouting indoors or in hot houses is explained, with directions as to the transplanting, moisture, soil, temperature, fertilization, etc. Harmony and contrast of color are shown, each plant being allotted its special place in the general scheme of decoration—whether at home, on on the driveway, or at the school.

Frederick W. Lord, city engineer of Hartford, Conn., is the author of a unique handbook of 262 pages entitled "Hartford Municipal Information." The nature of the work is such as to commend it to the attention of the authorities in every city of the country. It is not only a report of the duties and standing of the various municipal departments, but it treats the activities of the city from a historical standpoint. Little matters of information that one might spend days in seeking in the records, are made plain. An instance of this is a list of the obsolete and long forgotten names of streets, a knowledge of which often is valuable in clearing up land titles. Every department and office, as well as the semi-public utilities, is considered, the aim being to show the busy tax payer what he is paying for and how he may secure relief from obnoxious or burdensome city ordinances.



## CIVIC PROGRESS PROGRAMS

### PLAY AND PLAYGROUNDS

These "programs" are intended to provide suggestive outlines for meetings of women's clubs, men's clubs, young people's societies, education associations, parents' clubs, etc., and also serve as reference lists for individual and library use. As a rule only "in print" and fairly accessible publications are mentioned. Instructions for securing the use of most of these publications are given at the end. Fuller lists can be supplied upon application.

Last spring the Municipal Council of Paris offered prizes for the most artistic window gardens, hoping thus, through the greater amount of plant life in the city, to improve the air by an increased supply of oxygen, and to cultivate the artistic qualities of the people. The result of the competition was a great increase in the number of window gardens and consequent greater health and happiness to the Paris citizens. Why should not some art society in America try a similar experiment in one of our large cities?

The Civic Study Class, conducted under the auspices of the Christian Citizenship Committee of the Philadelphia Christian Endeavor Union, is displaying an active interest in practical social reform. The class announces that its object is, "To study the needs of our city, state and country and learn our duties and opportunities toward correcting existing evils." The first meeting of the class was held November 5, 1904, at which Clinton Rogers Woodruff spoke on "What Shall We Do?" The second meeting, held November 19, had as its subject, "What Women Can Do in Civics." The endeavor of this organization to make its efforts of practical value in social reform is representative of the modern "applied Christianity" which is not satisfied with words alone but feels it must act. Even more significant, however, is the determination to study social conditions before endeavoring to improve them; to find, first, the causes of evils before attempting their remedy.

Professor L. S. Rowe, of the University of Pennsylvania, in a paper read at the Chicago meeting of the National Municipal League, strongly advocated changes in the college courses of study which would make them of more value in the development of citizens. The present language and mathematical studies, declares Professor Rowe, cultivate a critical attitude of mind, which, in social affairs, often destroys the student's efficiency as a worker for reform. The man trained in the classics, but ignorant of contemporary problems, does not have the interest in current affairs that, as an educated man, he should. Professor Rowe finds the remedy in an increased amount of study in civil government, particularly in vital municipal problems. Research work of a practical nature in the study of public utilities in their relation to the city, would, thinks Professor Rowe, have as great an educational value as language and mathematics, and would make a better citizen of the student. His suggestions are in *The School Journal*, Nov. 12, 1904.

**Correlation:** Appoint some person to outline briefly the inter-relation of the civic topics in the January CHAUTAUQUAN: Playground Movement in Germany; How the American Boy is Educated; Contemporary Psychology; items in Survey of Civic Betterment and other departments.

**Summary:** Of article on The Playground Movement in Germany, by Henry S. Curtis, in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

**Definitions:** One person or several may give concise but clear statements about the following: Playground, vacation school, gymnasium, sand garden, school garden, kindergarten, sport, pastimes, play, recreation, etc.

**Paper:** "The Play Spirit." See Play of Man, Karl Groos; Play as a Factor in Social and Educational Reform, E. A. Kirkpatrick, *Review of Reviews*, Aug. '99, 20:192-196; Psychological, Pedagogical and Religious Aspect of Group Games, Luther Gulick, *Pedagogical Seminary*, Mch., '99, 6:135-151.

**Reading:** Stories of Games and Contests from "Tom Brown's School Days," and recent works intended to picture the spirit of school athletics.

**Paper:** "The Educational Aspect of Play." See Educational Value of Play and the Recent Play-movement in Germany, J. L. Hughes, *Educational Review*, Nov. '94, 8:327-336; Play as a Factor in Development, Geo. W. Fitz, *American Physical Education Review*, Dec. '97, 2:209-215; Educational Value of Play, Dr. John E. Bradley, *Review of Reviews*, Jan. '02, 25:62-65; Play in Physical Education, G. E. Johnson and others, *Proceedings of N. E. A.*, Washington, 1898, 948-958; Play as a Means of Idealizing and Extending the Child's Experience, Miss Allie M. Felke and others, *Proceedings of N. E. A.*, Washington, 1898, 624-632.

**Paper:** "Criminal Tendencies of Childhood in Relation to Play Facilities." See Some Criminal Tendencies of Boyhood, Edgar J. Swift, *Ped. Sem.*, Mch. '01, 8:65-91; Chap. 34, Reactions Against the Social Order—Play and Crime, in *Psychological Foundations of Education*, W. T. Harris.

**Paper:** "Play and Playgrounds in Other Lands." See Physical Training in English Schools, H. Brown, *Amer. Phy. Edu. Review*, Sept. 1900, 5:246-251; What the City of Braunschweig, Germany, Does for the Physical Training of Her Children, Ernst Harman, *Am. Phy. Edu. Review*, Sept. '96, 1:33-42; English Experience in Providing the Poor with Parks, Gardens, Gymnasias, and Playgrounds, The Earl of Meath, *Proceedings Am. Phy. Edu. Association*, 1893, 29-34.

**Paper:** "Present Status of the Playground Movement." See Playgrounds, by Henry S. Curtis, Report of Commissioner of Education for 1903; The Playground Movement in Germany, Henry S. Curtis, *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, January, 1905; Constructive and Preventive Philanthropy, Joseph Lee; American Municipal Progress, Charles Zueblin; reports of various playgrounds (these can be borrowed from the Bureau of Civic Cooperation, Chicago).

**Stories:** "Bits of Human Interest From the Playground." See local playground workers; books and articles by Jacob Riis; *Outlook* articles by L. W. Betts; Loose Threads in a Skein in "magazine numbers" of *Charities*.

**Assigned Readings:** "Playground Plans, Possibilities and Problems." Give references to different members for brief reports in the meeting: Word as to Winter Playgrounds, Joseph Lee, *Charities*, June 4, '04, 12:564; Days of Cold Snaps and Thaws on a Park Playground, S. P. MacDonald and E. A. Irwin, *Charities*, June 4, '04, 12:591-594; Need of After School Care for Children Over Six Years of Age, A. A. Tenney, *Charities*,

May 14, '04, 12:516-517; Social Extension of a Great Park System, J. F. Foster, *Commons*, June, '04; Playground Self-Government, Arthur Leland, *Charities*, June 4, '04, 12:586-590; "Health Show," L. V. Robinson, *Charities*, Aug. 6, '04, 12:812-815; Juvenile City League, W. C. Langdon, *Charities*, Sept. 10, '04, 12:922-926.

**Report:** A previously appointed committee of one or more persons should report, using a map if practicable, upon existing local playgrounds, and point out possibilities of extension, or suggest strategic locations as the beginnings of a new system of playgrounds.

**Discussion:** "What Can We Do?" See suggestions under this caption following these programs. Appoint a leader, and possibly arrange for several persons to speak of particular points.

**Bibliographical:** Report on Reading References about Play and Playgrounds in the Local Public Library. Endeavor to interest the audience in this literature and give directions for securing it easily.

**Address:** "Work vs. Play, or the Play Spirit in the Work of Life." See Study of the Boyhood of Great Men, A. H. Yoder, *Ped. Sem.*, Oct., '94, 3:154-156. How to get Strong, Wm. Blakie; biographies of Gladstone, Lincoln, and others.

**Open Discussion:** One or more of the following topics (adapted from Fundamentals of Child Study, E. A. Kirkpatrick) may be freely discussed with brief closing remarks by some one appointed in advance: (a) "Why do brain workers engage in manual labor and city people go to the country for recreation?" (b) "Why is a mason piling up brick, working, and a child piling up blocks, playing?" (c) "Is any of your work really play to you?" (d) "What games and sports are especially valuable in preparing for work, and why?" (e) "What amusements as distinguished from play, have a value, if any?"

**Local Investigation:** The entire town or a specified district may be the subject of a report by one or several persons. What private playgrounds? What public playgrounds? Are they located to serve all portions of the town? How many square feet of play space to each child in the school yards? Are these equipped or directed wisely? Are children of all grades on the grounds at the same time? Are children kept in at recess as punishment? Do the school people and city officials realize need of better play facilities? What localities are in special need? Cannot at least arrangements be made for flooding a few vacant lots for skating? What sites recommended for playgrounds? etc.

#### SOURCES OF INFORMATION

For periodicals address *Pedagogical Seminary*, Worcester, Mass.; *Mind and Body*, Milwaukee, Wis.; *American Physical Education Review*, 420 West 160th street, New York.

Joseph Lee, 101 Tremont St., Boston, is at the head of the recreation department of the American Civic Association, and is a notable exponent of the playground movement.

For Gymnasium Director's Pocket Book, list of normal and summer schools of physical training (including Chautauqua School of Physical Education), manuals and books of

rules, popular and technical periodicals, etc., enclose return postage with inquiry to Bureau of Civic Coöperation, 5711 Kimbark Ave., Chicago.

For the purchase of lantern slides or photographs, and access to a wealth of reference material, address American Institute of Social Service, 287 Fourth Ave., New York.

The publications and conventions of the American Physical Education Association, 420 West 160th St., New York, are of considerable value to the professional and lay worker and the student.

For lectures, for traveling exhibit of photographs and plans, for plans and specifications for grounds and equipment, for organization of the playground and solution of administrative problems, loan of publications, etc., address Bureau of Civic Coöperation, 5711 Kimbark Ave., Chicago.

#### ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

See Parks, Playgrounds, Squares, etc., in *Bibliography of Municipal Problems and City Conditions*, R. C. Brooks.

See Play, Playgrounds, etc., in *Readers' Guide, Poole's Index*, etc.

See *Magazines of the Week* in current issues of *Charities*.

See Partial Bibliography of Civic Progress, in annual "civics number" of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Bibliography, *Charities*, April 2, '04, 12:358-360. Serviceable for references to reports from different cities.

Organization of a System of Public Playgrounds, and Bibliography of the Playground Movement, Arthur Leland. Some valuable suggestions about organization and management.

Playgrounds, H. S. Curtis, in *Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1903*. A concise, general survey, accompanied by a similar article on vacation schools.

Jahrbuch für Volks und Jugendspiele. 1892-1904.

Special Reports on Educational Subjects for Great Britain. Contain the following valuable articles: Higher Schools for Girls in Germany, vol. IX, p. 207; The School Journey, vol. I, p. 510; Schools in the Rhineland, vol. IX, p. 405; Elementary School Code, vol. I, p. 468; also under various titles in vol. III. Secondary School System of Germany. Bolton.

German Schools. Russell.

Play of Animals. Karl Gross.

Mother Play. Froebel.

Education of Man. Froebel.

Schreiber Gardens. Leipzig. In *Current Literature*, vol. XXV, p. 385 (1899).

Report of the Commissioner of Education. Playgrounds and Vacation Schools in Germany. 1899-1900.

Children Out of School Hours. L. W. Betts. *Outlook*, 75:209-16 (Sept. 26, '03).

Playgrounds for City Schools. J. A. Riis. *Century*, 48:657-666 (Sept. '94)

Movement for Small Playgrounds. *American Journal of Sociology*, 4:159-170 (Sept., '02).

City Playground. F. M. Chapman. *St. Nicholas*, 18:609-616 (June, '91).

#### WHAT CAN WE DO?

Encourage local libraries to secure additional publications upon play, playgrounds, and games.

Volunteer some regular service to a playground, boys' club, etc., as a leader in games, or at least as a sympathetic friend and counselor.

If no playground exists invite the aid of a half dozen or so representative men and women who will doubtless need to be patiently informed as to the need of them. Conferences of this group will make clear the best starting point and the line of campaign in your community. In the meantime correspondence as suggested below will enable you to submit definite plans. In the very beginning consult frankly and fully with the school authorities.

Prepare a careful, conservative statement of arguments for playgrounds in general and of any particular local needs, sending copies to editors, ministers, city officials, women's clubs, and other influential quarters.

Apply to any reputable local gymnasium for information and aid. Ask for help from among the volunteer class leaders. The Y. M. C. A. physical education methods are especially adapted to playground needs.

Seek the discussion of playground topics by women's clubs, church societies, business associations, etc.

Manual training classes can make considerable equipment for the playground. In some cities labor unions have contributed skilled service. In other cases relatives and friends of the children have given time and skilled labor. See Junior Citizens' League department in *Boys and Girls*, Ithaca, New York.

Be faithful and intelligent in upholding the canons of "clean sport." Many lapses from the highest ethical standards begin in ignorance. The local Y. M. C. A., if member of the A. L. N. A. will be a safe guide. In any case address Amateur Athletic Union, J. E. Sullivan, Secretary, New York, for information about athletic meets and standards.

Public and Sunday School teachers may coöperate by the discussion of the ethics of the playground and the meaning of "clean sport."

Helpful correlation may be secured between friends of the playground and enemies of child labor.

Likewise juvenile court and playground advocates should plan a common campaign.

Secure from Columbia University, New York, information about the new profession of play supervisor. See "Profession of Play Supervisor," *Current Literature*, Jan. '04, 36: 91-92.

Send a postal addressed to Bureau of Civic Coöperation, 5711 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, telling whether there is any public or private playground, sand garden, play supervisor, etc., in your community, so that exchange of actual experiences may be obtained.

Does it appear that too much is asked of those who take up this movement? Nowhere may one find surer application of the truism that "what is worth doing at all is worth doing well." Better wait for leaders to arise with the spirit and the time to work wisely than to start wrong or to mismanage in the early stages.

# News Summary and Current Events Programs

## DOMESTIC

November 1.—Strike among the hoisting engineers, on account of a cut in wages, closes most of the Illinois coal mines.

2.—On estimate of Real Estate Board of the city the population of Chicago is estimated to be over 2,834,048. The Erie Railroad is reported to have purchased the Pere Marquette system, paying \$75,000,000.

5.—The hulk of the battleship *Maine* has been purchased by an amusement concern and will be placed on exhibition at Coney Island.

8.—In national elections Roosevelt and Fairbanks are overwhelmingly endorsed, carrying every Republican and doubtful state besides Missouri and one vote in Maryland. Democrats carry southern states and elect governors in Massachusetts, Missouri, Minnesota and Colorado. The Socialists receive 600,000 votes.

9.—Transactions on the New York stock exchange aggregate 2,370,000 shares.

10.—Governor Peabody of Colorado announces intention of contesting election of Governor-elect Adams, alleging fraud.

13.—Steamship companies agree to raise rates of steerage passengers to the United States from continental Europe.

14.—Heavy storm along the Atlantic coast destroys much property and cuts communication with New York and other eastern cities. Philip Weinseimer, New York labor leader convicted of extortion, is sentenced to prison. Eugene Ware, commissioner of pensions, resigns.

15.—John Morley, M. P., visiting in this country, in a speech before the New York Chamber of Commerce, prophesies an alliance of all English-speaking nations.

17.—Secretary Taft starts for Panama for the purpose of conciliating the people with the United States. Colonel Frank J. Hecker resigns from Panama Canal Commission. American Federation of Labor in San Francisco sends to committee a proposition for a new central labor body in Chicago. The state of Minnesota begins mandamus proceedings to compel the Great Northern railway to submit to an examination of its books.

18.—American Federation of Labor in San Francisco votes \$25,000 a week for three weeks for the relief of the Fall River mill strikers. Secretary Shaw issues a call on the national banks for \$26,000,000 of the government deposits before March 15. National Founders' Association makes new shop rule which is antagonistic to many of the principles of trade unionism.

19.—Statue of Frederick the Great presented to United States by Emperor William, is unveiled at army war college in Washington. Three election officers are fined and sentenced to jail by Colorado supreme court for substituting ballots.

20.—Archbishop Agius, new papal delegate to the Philippines, arrives in America.

21.—Socialists in American Federation of Labor convention attack Gompers and Mitchell who are, however, supported by the delegates. President Roosevelt appoints Francis E. Leupp commissioner of Indian affairs to succeed William A. Jones, resigned.

22.—Secretary Hay and Baron von Stern-

burg sign an arbitration treaty between America and Germany. Disturbances in connection with the moulders' strike in Cincinnati result in the arrest of several unionists and the president of the national moulders' union.

23.—Arbitration treaty between the United States and Portugal signed in Washington.

24.—Lake Bluff site, near Chicago, is selected for a naval training station on the great lakes. At a conference of western Democrats in Indiana there is a general demand for Bryan as a leader.

25.—Lieutenant-General Chaffee, in his annual report declares the absence of the army canteen has a pernicious effect.

26.—Samuel Gompers is reelected president of the American Federation of Labor. The directors of Union Theological Seminary, New York, vote unanimously to abolish the requirement that its faculty and officers need subscribe to the Westminster confession of faith.

27.—Secretary Taft arrives at Colon and meets President Amador and cabinet.

28.—Wallace Downey, New Jersey ship-builder, makes profit sharing offer to unionist employees.

29.—New York State court of appeals declares labor statute unconstitutional which prohibits a contractor from employing his men more than eight hours a day on city, county or state work.

30.—Joseph Leiter of Chicago and his attorney, Henry R. Platt, are indicted at Pinckneyville, Illinois, on the charge of sending men under armed guard through Perry County without the consent of the governor. Rear-Admiral Davis is appointed the American member of the international court that is to pass upon the English-Russian dispute concerning the Baltic fleet episode.

## FOREIGN

November 1.—Pope Pius X is reported to have a serious attack of gout and rheumatism.

2.—Russian attack on Oku's army on Shakhe river is disastrously repulsed. Vice Admiral Rojestvensky is promoted by the Russian admiralty, notwithstanding his error in firing upon the English fishing boats.

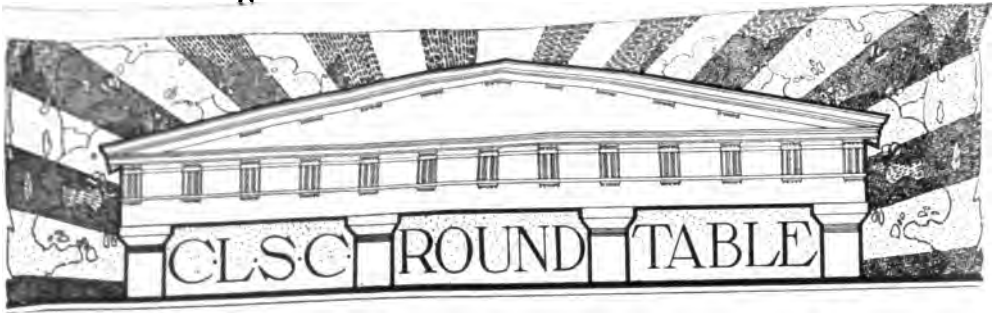
3.—Japanese reported to be slowly capturing the outlying defenses of Port Arthur. Liberals win an overwhelming victory in the Canadian elections, continuing Sir Wilfrid Laurier in power.

7.—Despite violent attack from its opponents, the Italian elections result in overwhelming victory for the government. Cuban congressional session opens. Japanese, in desperate assault on Port Arthur, lose 1,100 killed.

12.—General Kuroki is reported to have been killed by a shell before Port Arthur, October 4. It is reported that Canada will place retaliatory duties on her exports to this country, in an attempt to force a reciprocity treaty.

14.—Japanese make fierce attack on Port Arthur, but after some success, are repulsed with heavy loss. Count Cassini, Russian ambassador to Washington, announces that intervention to stop the war is useless. The Vatican accuses France of bad faith in breaking the concordat.

15.—General André, French minister of war, resigns on account of attacks, and rumors are



## COUNSELORS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE

JESSE L. HURLBUT, D. D.  
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 W. P. KANE, D. D.

MISS KATE F. KIMBALL, Executive Secretary.

### THE CHANCELLOR'S NEW YEAR'S GREETING

*Dear Fellow Chautauquans:*

New resolves ought to sing their song on New Year's morning. New Year resolves should be radical as they affect motive and force of will; and they should be progressive as they express advancing ideals. These radiant resolves of a New Year's morning should improve, even in a material way, immediate environment—the room we sleep in, the room we eat in, the room we work in. Worthy purpose, ardent desire and noble enthusiasm should embody themselves in facts of form, color, combination—a new picture, a new arrangement of old pictures, a new book, a new statuette or bust, a new touch of beauty here and there—the soul's growth revealed in the externals we control. Are not our belongings and our surroundings part of ourselves? Do they not give weight to our influence. Do they not extend our personality? Do they not increase for good or ill the power we wield in the world? It does make a difference how one dresses, how one arranges his room. Harmony in lines, colors and adjustment do tell on character as they tell of character.



CHANCELLOR  
VINCENT

Let us then begin the new year by extending our powers of personality into

the material environment we dominate. Thus we "spread ourselves," not in egoistic display and self promotion, but in a blessed and happy extension of influence. Our world enlarges, our talents multiply, our work becomes more varied and permanent. Therefore let the next December sun set on a fairer, worthier, richer realm of our personal influence than its first beams at the dawn of the new year—a face more radiant with good cheer; other lives worthier because of our example and efforts; walls more suggestive of critical thoughtfulness, culture and taste; shelves enriched and burdened with worthier literature; light and shadow, color of carpet and tint of ceiling quietly telling of the increase of influence, delicacy of insight, and artistic sensitiveness. If "walls have ears," and if spoken words, the unsyllabled soliloquies and the heart's deepest desires, become both real and immortal—then shall the record of the year show to God and His angels (and the wisest human observer shall not be without power of witness) how much has been wrought by a holy purpose, a living faith, a resolute will, not alone in the secret recesses of the spirit, in all the visible realm, touched and dominated by an earnest personality, but also in many other human lives made brighter, stronger, worthier through our affection, fidelity and example.

A happy New Year to all the readers of the C. L. S. C.

JOHN H. VINCENT,  
 Indianapolis, Ind., January 1, 1905.

## THE NEW HALL IN THE GROVE

These glimpses of the new Hall of Philosophy at Chautauqua show the extent of the work done up to the present time. One view is taken from the west looking across to the stairway which leads down into the grove and to the Golden Gate. The gateway has been moved a few feet to the north of its old position, bringing it directly opposite Merrill Avenue so as to give a clear vista from the Grove through the gateway down to the lake. Some idea of the beauty of the new building can be gained from this imperfect view of the graceful balustrade and the rostrum. The spaces in the floor which are boarded over are designed for class tablets to be assigned to each class from 1882 to 1932. This plan was accepted with enthusiasm by the classes last summer. Fifty classes may thus have a share in the building, the last tablet being set in its place on the Golden Anniversary of the C. L. S. C. Special provision is also to be made for recognition of the first gift to the new Hall, made by the "Hope" Circle, of Providence, Rhode Island, in 1884. Twenty years ago! As every member of the C. L. S. C.



APPROACH OF NEW HALL OF PHILOSOPHY,  
CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.

will want to have a share in this historic building, three possible ways of making gifts are suggested: First, individual

gifts. The building has been divided into units and every individual giver may feel that he is responsible for some part of the structure. A full list of such units can be secured from the office at Chautauqua. Second, class gifts. Many of the classes have subscribed for columns. Some of them have raised all the money needed



FLOOR OF THE NEW HALL OF PHILOSOPHY,  
CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.

for their columns and are putting additional class gifts into the floor tablet. Members who want their contributions credited to a particular class may mention the fact, and the amount will be added to the fund of that class. Third, circle gifts. The pavement of the terrace surrounding the Hall has been divided into ten-dollar squares. Some of these have already been taken and it would be a very happy result if the entire pavement could represent gifts from the circles. The Hall is built of material which will stand for centuries. It is the center of a great movement which has brought higher ideals into tens of thousands of homes. It is being built by the gifts of great numbers of people and any amount whatever is of importance. In order that the Trustees may go forward with the building, promptness on the part of all Chautauquans will be appreciated. Write to the President of the Chautauqua Board

of Trustees, Dr. W. H. Hickman, Chautauqua, N. Y., for further particulars, or send your contribution stating how you want it credited. A considerable sum is still needed before the beautiful building can be completed.



#### APPRECIATIVE WORDS FROM GIVERS

Many of the letters accompanying gifts to the Hall show the affection with which Chautauquans look upon the building. One writes



BROWNING'S LONDON RESIDENCE, 1861-1887

Where he resided twenty-five years after the death of his wife.

From "Robert Browning," by James Douglass. James Pott & Company.

"Should I be able later, I will gladly contribute further to the institution whose welfare I have greatly at heart." Another says of her gift, "I sincerely wish it could be increased many times, but hope that a number of smaller amounts will serve the same purpose as larger sums by fewer givers. Chautauqua has indeed been a help to me." A member of the "Pioneer Class," whose home was near the Hall writes: "My husband and I spent twenty summers there. He entered into rest in 1902 and I am left alone with limited means. My husband was in his ninetieth year. I am eighty-four. We loved Chautauqua. Please accept the enclosed as evidence of my continued interest in my beloved class."

#### THE "BROWNING" CLASS OF 1905

"A man's reach should exceed his grasp."

How many members of 1905 are familiar with Browning's "Andrea del Sarto," the poem from which the class motto is taken? If you don't know it, suppose you get your Browning and look it up. You haven't a Browning? Then let us suggest some Browning literature for you. There is, first, a little twenty-five cent volume of selections from Browning edited with notes and published by the Macmillan Company. This contains many of the best known shorter poems and will lead you gently up to the more rugged paths of Browning wisdom. The title of this book is "Browning's Shorter Poems." The only complete edition of the poet's work in one volume is the Cambridge Browning, good clean print and very satisfactory, published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., for three dollars. The Camberwell edition, T. Y. Crowell & Co., is to be commended because the volumes, of which there are twelve, are small, light in weight, filled with notes and sold separately for seventy-five cents.

Many of the class will find great pleasure in owning a copy of the charming little year book entitled "Beautiful Thoughts from Robert and Elizabeth Browning," published by James Pott & Co., for seventy-five cents. They will thus become familiar by daily reading with some of Browning's most helpful thoughts, and, as the source of each quotation is given, they will find that these readings frequently lead to further study of the poems. Might it not be a good plan to read one poem of Browning's each week from now until the close of the class year? For the next five weeks beginning with January first we suggest: Andrea del Sarto, Abt Vogler, Saul, The Statue and the Bust, and The Lost Leader.



#### THE CHAUTAUQUA EXHIBIT AT ST. LOUIS

All Chautauquans will be interested in the following letter from the Office of the

Director of Education and Social Economy of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition Commission for the State of New York:

I am pleased to announce that the International Jury has awarded a grand prize to the Chautauqua Institution in recognition of the advanced work which it is doing in the field of education. Permit me to congratulate the Institution upon the recognition thus accorded to it.

Very truly yours,

D. M. ELLIS.



#### A SHAKESPEARE GAME

"Celerity is never more admired than by the negligent."

Do you know which of Shakespeare's characters is responsible for this wise sentiment? If you do not, the Shakespeare Club, of Camden, Maine, is ready to enlighten you! This enterprising club has achieved distinction through the seemingly simple process of trying to do good work and then letting its light shine. The members have embodied some of the results of their study in a game which has already reached its sixth edition, and has received the approval of eminent literary authorities. The game consists of sixty cards, each containing a half dozen or more quotations and questions upon a single play or upon some Shakespearean character. The cards are most tasteful in appearance. The type is clear and the tiny picture of the Camden mountains upon the reverse side of each card does honor to the birthplace of the game. This is a capital game for Chautauqua Circles and households to own, for unlike some other

games of amusement it is never old or out of date. Boys and girls are constantly growing up to whom such a form of diversion becomes an important part of their education, and we fancy that few, even of the "grown-ups" who try it for the first time, will be able to answer the questions offhand. The game can be secured from the Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y., for fifty cents. Chautauquans have a peculiar interest in this literary enterprise as the Secretary of the Shakespeare Club is also a graduate of the C. L. S. C., Class of 1900.



#### NOTES

By an accidental omission in the October CHAUTAUQUAN, the address of the Frances Farrar Company which furnishes stereopticon slides, was not given. It is Steinway Hall, Chicago, Ill.

The words "CHAUTAUQUA QUARTERLY" on the title page of the membership book have led to the question whether the membership book is issued four times a year. To this we reply that the present book mailed at the beginning of the course is the complete book for the year. It forms one of a series of "QUARTERLIES" issued by Chautauqua Institution at intervals during the year.

"The States General" of Erckmann-Chatrain has proved such a fascinating introduction to the story of the French Revolution that our readers are anxious to secure the three other volumes included under the general title of "The Story of a Peasant." These three books, "Citizen Bonaparte," "The Country in Danger," and "Year One of the Republic" are published in England, but orders for them will be filled by the Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y., for \$1.25 per volume. Seven other historical tales by Erckmann-Chatrain are published in this country and these also can be secured through the Chautauqua Press for \$1.25 each. They are "The Blockade of Phalsburg," "The Conscript," "Friend Fritz," "The Invasion of France in 1814," "Madam Therese," "The Plebescite" and "Waterloo."



### OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS

#### C. L. S. C. MOTTOES

*"We Study the Word and the Works of God." "Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst." "Never be Discouraged."*

#### C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.



## OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR FEBRUARY

## FEBRUARY 3-10—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck.

Required Book: Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century. Guizot and Fourier.

## FEBRUARY 10-17—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: Social Progress in Europe.

Required Book: Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century. Thiers.

## FEBRUARY 17-24—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: Social Progress in Europe. Reread.

Required Book: Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century. Gambetta.

## FEBRUARY 24-MARCH 3—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: German Master Musicians.

Required Book: Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century. Victor Hugo.



## SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

A very useful little volume which throws much light on the period of English History discussed by Mr. Ogg in this and next month's reading is "English Social Reformers," by Gibbins. It is one of a series of University Extension Manuals published by Methuen & Company of London, and can be secured through any book dealer. It is a small, inexpensive volume and Circles which are working up libraries will find it a good book to add this year. Circles which can draw on large libraries will find Traill's "Social England" a mine of valuable information given in most entertaining style. Volumes V and VI deal with the period which we are studying. This stage of English social progress is full of striking and dramatic contrasts, and Circles and readers will find it well worth while to use their library facilities to the utmost. Green's "History of England" and Larned's "History for Ready Reference" and Warner's "Library of the World's Best Literature" will all prove helpful.

## FEBRUARY 3-10—

Review of Reading Journey article.

Roll-call: Legends relating to different German cities as embodied in German poetry (see Longfellow's "Poems of Places," the two volumes of the series on Germany); or Answers to Search Questions and other items regarding the city government of Hamburg (see New International and other encyclopedias).

Reading: The story of "The Victual Brothers" from "The Hansa Towns," or Lowell's poem, "An Incident of the Fire at Hamburg," also from "Playgrounds in Germany," in this number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, or from "German Life in Town and Country," on "German Pastimes."

Review: Article on "Hamburg's New Sanitary Impulse," by Albert Shaw. *Atlantic*, 73: 787 (June, 1894). (This is a remarkably interesting article, showing how Hamburg learned her lesson from the cholera scourge in 1892.)

Brief Papers: Klopstock and his influence upon Germany (see histories of German literature especially that by Kuno Francke). Lessing and his life at Hamburg.

Reading: The story of Minna von Barnhelm with selections from the play (see "Studies in German Literature," one of this year's required books. The parts should be assigned to different members).

## FEBRUARY 10-17—

Review of article on Social Progress.

Short Papers: On Robert Owen, Richard

Oastler and John Howard (see "English Social Reformers," encyclopedias, etc.).

Reading: Selections from Goldsmith's "Deserted Village."

Book Review with Selections: "All Sorts and Conditions of Men." Walter Besant.

Roll-call: Brief oral reports on how England was affected by the French Revolution in the case of (a) Burke, (b) Pitt, (c) Fox, (d) price of food, (e) new styles of dress, (f) humanitarian schemes. (See Traill's "Social England," and other books mentioned in the bibliography.)

Discussion: Arguments that were used for and against the proposed Factory Acts in behalf of children in England in 1830. (See "English Social Reformers," Gibbins; "Industrial and Social England," Cheyney; and Traill's "Social England," vols. V and VI, histories of political economy, etc.)

## FEBRUARY 17-24—

Roll-call: Reports on paragraphs in Highways and Byways in this number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Summary, by leader of chapter in "Ten Frenchmen," on Fourier.

Paper: Thiers and Gambetta compared. First as to their early training, etc. Then by taking up in chronological order the striking political events in which both were concerned and showing how the character of each led him to act in the circumstances.

Reading: Sketch of Beranger and one of his poems (see the Warner "Library of the World's Best Literature").

Oral Report: Answer to the question, "Why was Germany in 1871 a different enemy from the one which Napoleon crushed in 1806?" (See "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," Judson; Fyffe's "History of Modern Europe," and other histories.)

Reading: Selection from "Reminiscences of Thiers and Gambetta" (see *Century*, 1:439 and 3:708).

## FEBRUARY 24-MARCH 3—

Oral Report: Incidents of Victor Hugo's early life (see *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, 25:115).

Review of "Les Misérables" (see *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, 25:126).

Roll-call: Answers to the question, What facts in relation to Victor Hugo first come to your mind when he is mentioned? In other words what incidents in his life or qualities of his works have made a special impression upon you?

Brief Selections from "Characteristics of Hugo's Work and Career," in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, 25:132.

Reading: Selections from "Ninety-Three." (See *The Library Shelf*.)

Recitation or Reading: "The Retreat from

Moscow" or other poem of Victor Hugo's (see Warner's "Library of the World's Best Literature"; also "Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century"), or from articles on Hugo in *Harper's Magazine*, 102:100 and 444, and *Scribner's Magazine*, 21:108.



## THE TRAVEL CLUB

### FIRST WEEK—

Roll-call: Legends relating to different German cities as embodied in German poetry. (See Longfellow's "Poems of Places;" the two volumes of the series on Germany.)

Paper: Some Customs of the Hanseatic Towns. (See "The Hansa Towns," Zimmermann.)

Reading: The story of "The Victual Brothers" from "The Hansa Towns."

Paper: Lübeck's share in the affairs of the Hansa League.

Oral Reports: Items of interest relating to other cities of the League.

### SECOND WEEK—

Roll-call: Quotations from German poetry expressive of patriotism. (See "Germany and the Germans," Chap. I, and poems of Körner and Arndt.)

Discussion: The strong and weak points of the German military system. (See "Germany and the Germans," "German Life in Town and Country," etc.)

Reading: Selections from *The Living Age*, 209: 131, April 11, 1896, on the Baltic Canal, or from Longfellow's "Poets and Poetry of Europe."

Oral Report: The Smallest Gem in the Kaiser's Crown. (*THE CHAUTAUQUAN* 35: 25, April, 1902.)

Book Review: Elizabeth in Rügen (by author of Elizabeth and her German Garden).

Reading: Selection from "Bismarck at Friedrichsruh," *Century*, 25:94 (1893).

Oral Report: Anecdotes of Bismarck. [See *Review of Reviews*, 18:291 (1898).]

### THIRD WEEK—

Roll-call: Answers to Search Questions and other items regarding the city government of Hamburg. (See *New International* and other encyclopedias.)

Oral Report: Klopstock and his influence upon German thought. (See histories of German literature, especially that by Kuno Francke.)

Reading: Lowell's poem, "An Incident of the Fire at Hamburg."

Paper: Lessing and his life at Hamburg.

Reading: The Story of Minna von Barnhelm, with selections from the play. The parts should be assigned to different members. (See "Studies in German Literature," R. Hochdoerfer.)

### FOURTH WEEK—

Roll-call: Points of view concerning Germany, secured from Germans of our own acquaintance.

Review of article on Hamburg.

Oral Reports: German pleasures and pastimes. (See "German Life in Town and Country.")

Reading: Selections from "The Playground Movement in Germany." (See other pages of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.)

Review: Article on "Hamburg's New Sanitary Impulse," by Albert Shaw. *Atlantic*, 73:787 (June, 1894). (This is a very remarkable article showing how Hamburg learned her lesson from the cholera scourge in 1892.)

Discussion: The German Press. How is it superior and how inferior to our own. (See bibliography.)



## ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON JANUARY READINGS

### ERA OF SOCIAL SPECULATION AND EXPERIMENT

1. Caius Sempronius Gracchus was a younger brother of Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus "the younger." He brought forward a series of resolutions looking to the substitution of a free democracy for the existing aristocratic republican form of government in the Roman state. He secured the support of the proletariat by the free distribution of grain at the expense of the state. 2. Brook Farm Association; the community of the Shakers; the Oneida Community; communities at New Harmony, Indiana; Zoar, Ohio; Amana, Iowa. 3. One of the colleges of the University of Paris. It is devoted chiefly to theology. 4. College founded in 1529 and designed, then, to promote the more advanced tendencies of the time. It has now about forty chairs. 5. Members of the French Academy. 6. Chartism. 7. The socialists and radicals in 1848, who wanted France to adopt a red flag. They were supposed to favor bloody means of reform. 8. Louis Napoleon was the son of Hortense Beauharnais, daughter of Napoleon

Bonaparte's first wife Josephine. 9. General Cavaignac. He received only 1,500,000 votes to Napoleon's 7,300,000.

### MUNICH: THE CITY ON THE ISAR

Eugene Beauharnais, son of Alexandre de Beauharnais and Josephine, afterwards empress of France, was a soldier and statesman, and was one of Napoleon's generals. After Napoleon's banishment he retired to Bavaria where he obtained the principality of Eichstadt and the title of Duke of Leuchtenberg. 2. Otho I, second son of Louis I of Bavaria, becoming king of Greece, adopted for the Greek flag the colors of his native land. 3. Beer. 4. Frauenhofer was an optician and physicist. He made remarkably perfect lenses and prisms and invented a heliometer, micrometer, and refracting telescope. His great discovery was that of the dark lines in the solar spectrum which are known as "Frauenhofer's Lines." 5. Conrad Wilhelm Röntgen. 6. Justus von Liebig. 7. Goethe's "Faust," and "Reinecke Fuchs."

## THE LIBRARY SHELF

## VICTOR HUGO'S "NINETY-THREE"

No description in all the work of Victor Hugo is more instinct with dramatic feeling than his famous account of the runaway cannon in "Ninety-three." The scene of the story is laid in the Vendée, and Chautauqua readers who have been watching during these past few weeks the seething struggle of the French Revolution will find it a most opportune time to read this stirring tale. The Vendée was one of the most prolific sources of perplexity to the Revolutionary leaders and Victor Hugo has used this dramatic material to great advantage in his "Ninety-three." The episode of the cannon is in itself typical of some phases of the revolutionary struggle:

One of the carronades of the battery, a twenty-four pounder, had broken loose.

This is the most dangerous accident that can possibly take place on shipboard. Nothing more terrible can happen to a sloop of war in open sea and under full sail.

A cannon that breaks its moorings suddenly becomes some strange, supernatural beast. It is a machine transformed into a monster. That short mass on wheels moves like a billiard ball, rolls with the rolling of the ship, plunges with the pitching, goes, comes, stops, seems to meditate, starts on its course again, shoots like an arrow, from one end of the vessel to the other, whirls around, slips away, dodges, rears, bangs, crashes, kills, exterminates. It is a battering ram capriciously assaulting a wall. Add to this, the fact that the ram is of metal, the wall of wood.

It is matter set free; one might say, that this eternal slave was avenging itself; it seems as if the total depravity concealed in what we call inanimate things had escaped, and burst forth all of a sudden; it appears to lose patience, and to take a strange mysterious revenge; nothing more relentless than this wrath of the inanimate. This enraged lump leaps like a panther, it has the clumsiness of an elephant, the nimbleness of a mouse, the obstinacy of an axe, the uncertainty of the billows, the zigzag of the lightning, the deafness of the grave. It weighs ten thousand pounds, and it rebounds like a child's ball. It spins and then abruptly darts off at right angles.

And what is to be done? How put an end to it? A tempest ceases, a cyclone passes over, a wind dies down, a broken mast can be replaced, a leak can be stopped, a fire can be extinguished, but what will become of this enormous brute of bronze? How can it be captured? You can reason with a bulldog, astonish a bull, fascinate a boa, frighten a tiger, tame a lion; but you have no resource against this monster, a loose cannon. You cannot kill it, it is dead; and at the same time it lives. It lives with a sinister life which comes to it from the infinite. The deck beneath it gives it full swing. It is moved by the ship, which is moved by the sea, which is moved by the

wind. This destroyer is a toy. The ship, the waves, the winds, all play with it, hence its frightful animation. What is to be done with this apparatus? How fetter this stupendous engine of destruction? How anticipate its comings and goings, its returns, its stops, its shocks? Any one of its blows on the side of the ship may stave it in. How foretell its frightful meanderings? It is dealing with a projectile, which alters its mind, which seems to have ideas, and changes its direction every instant. How check the course of what must be avoided? The horrible cannon struggles, advances, backs, strikes right, strikes left, retreats, passes by, disconcerts expectation, grinds up obstacles, crushes men like flies. All the terror of the situation is in the fluctuations of the flooring. How fight an inclined plane subject to caprices? The ship has, so to speak, in its belly, an imprisoned thunderstorm, striving to escape; something like a thunderbolt rumbling above an earthquake.

In an instant the whole crew was on foot. It was the fault of the gun captain, who had neglected to fasten the screw-nut of the mooring-chain, and had insecurely clogged the four wheels of the gun carriage; this gave play to the sole of the framework, separated the two platforms and finally the breeching. The tackle had given way, so the cannon was no longer firm on its carriage. The stationary breeching which prevents recoil, was not in use at this time. A heavy sea struck the port, the carronade insecurely fastened had recoiled and broken its chain, and began its terrible course over the deck.

To form an idea of this strange sliding, let one imagine a drop of water running over glass.

The enormous gun was left alone. It was given up to itself. It was its own master, and master of the ship. It could do what it pleased. This whole crew, accustomed to laugh in time of battle, now trembled. To describe the terror is impossible.

Captain Boisberthelot and Lieutenant La Vieuville, although both dauntless men, stopped at the head of the companionway, and dumb, pale, and hesitating, looked down on the deck below. Some one elbowed past and went down.

It was their passenger, the peasant, the man of whom they had just been speaking a moment before.

Reaching the foot of the companion-way, he stopped.

There was just sea enough to make the accident as bad as possible. A tempest would have been desirable, for it might have upset the cannon, and with its four wheels once in the air there would be some hope of getting it under control. Meanwhile the havoc increased.

There were splits and fractures in the masts, which are set into the framework of the keel and rise above the decks of ships like great, round pillars. The convulsive blows of the cannon had cracked the mizzen-mast, and had cut into the main-mast.

The battery was being ruined. Ten pieces out of thirty were disabled; the breaches in

the side of the vessel were increasing, and the corvette was beginning to leak.

The old passenger, having gone down to the gun deck, stood like a man of stone at the foot of the steps. He cast a stern glance over this scene of devastation. He did not move. It seemed impossible to take a step forward. Every movement of the loose carronade threatened the ship's destruction. A few moments more and shipwreck would be inevitable.

Suddenly, in the midst of this inaccessible ring, where the escaped cannon was leaping, a man was seen to appear, with an iron bar in his hand. He was the author of the catastrophe, the captain of the gun, guilty of criminal carelessness and the cause of the accident, the master of the carronade. Having done the mischief, he was anxious to repair it. He had seized the iron bar in one hand, a tiller-rope with a slipnoose in the other, and jumped down the hatchway to the gun deck.

Then began an awful sight; a Titanic scene; the contest between gun and gunner; the battle of matter and intelligence, the duel between man and the inanimate.

The man stationed himself in a corner, and with bar and rope in his two hands, he leaned against one of the riders, braced himself on his legs, which seemed two steel posts, and livid, calm, tragic, as if rooted to the deck, he waited.

He waited for the cannon to pass by him.

The gunner knew his gun, and it seemed to him as if the gun ought to know him. He had lived long with it. How many times he had thrust his hand into its mouth. It was his own familiar monster. He began to speak to it as if it were a dog.

"Come," he said. Perhaps he loved it.

He seemed to wish it to come to him.

But to come to him was to come upon him. And then he would be lost. How could he avoid being crushed? That was the question. All looked on in terror.

Not a breast breathed freely, unless perhaps that of the old man, who was alone in the battery with the two contestants, a stern witness.

He might be crushed himself by the cannon. He did not stir.

Beneath them the sea blindly directed the contest.

At the moment when the gunner, accepting this frightful hand-to-hand conflict, challenged the cannon, some chance rocking of the sea caused the carronade to remain for an instant motionless and as if stupefied. "Come, now," said the man. It seemed to listen.

Suddenly it leaped toward him. The man dodged the blow.

The battle began. Battle unprecedented. Frailty struggling against the invulnerable. The gladiator of flesh attacking the beast of brass. On one side, brute force; on the other, a human soul.

All this was taking place in semi-darkness. It was like the shadowy vision of a miracle.

A soul—strange to say, one would have thought the cannon also had a soul; but a soul full of hatred and rage. This sightless thing seemed to have eyes. The monster appeared to lie in wait for the man. One would have at least believed that there was craft in the mass. It also chose its time. It was a strange, gigantic insect of metal having or seeming to

have the will of a demon. For a moment this colossal locust would beat against the low ceiling overhead, then it would come down on its four wheels like a tiger on its four paws, and begin to run at the man. He, supple, nimble, expert, writhed away like an adder from all these lightning movements. He avoided a collision, but the blows which he parried fell against the vessel, and continued their work of destruction.

An end of broken chain was left hanging to the carronade. This chain had in some strange way become twisted about the screw of the caskabel. One end of the chain was fastened to the gun-carriage. The other, left loose, whirled desperately about the cannon, making all its blows more dangerous.

The screw held it in a firm grip, adding a thong to a battering-ram, making a terrible whirlwind around the cannon, an iron lash in a brazen hand. This chain complicated the contest.

However, the man went on fighting. Occasionally it was the man who attacked the cannon; he would creep along the side of the vessel, bar and rope in hand, and the cannon as if it understood, and as though suspecting some snare, would flee away. The man, bent on victory, pursued it.

Such things cannot long continue. The cannon seemed to say to itself, all of a sudden, "Come, now. Make an end of it." And it stopped. One felt that the crisis was at hand. The cannon, as if in suspense, seemed to have, or really had—for to all it was a living being—a ferocious malice prepense. It made a sudden, quick dash at the gunner. The gunner sprang out of the way, let it pass by, and cried out to it with a laugh, "Try it again." The cannon, as if enraged, smashed a carronade on the port side; then, again seized by the invisible sling which controlled it, it was hurled at the starboard side at the man who made his escape. Three carronades gave way under the blows of the cannon; then, as if blind and not knowing what more to do, it turned its back on the man, rolled from stern to bow, injured the stern and made a breach in the planking of the prow. The man took refuge at the foot of the steps, not far from the old man who was looking on. The gunner held his iron bar in rest. The cannon seemed to notice it, and without taking the trouble to turn around, slid back on the man, swift as the blow of an axe. The man, driven against the side of the ship, was lost. The whole crew cried out in horror.

But the old passenger, till this moment motionless, darted forth more quickly than any of this wildly swift rapidity. He seized a package of counterfeit assignats, and, at the risk of being crushed, succeeded in throwing it between the wheels of the carronade. This decisive and perilous movement could not have been made with more exactness and precision by a man trained in all the exercises described in Durosels' "Manual of Gun Practice at Sea."

The package had the effect of a clog. A pebble may stop a log, the branch of a tree turn aside an avalanche. The carronade stumbled. The gunner, taking advantage of this critical opportunity, plunged his iron bar between the spokes of one of the hind wheels.

The cannon stopped. It leaned forward. The man using the bar as a lever, held it in equilibrium. The heavy mass was overthrown, with the crash of a falling bell, and the man, rushing with all his might, dripping with per-

spiration, passed the slipnoose around the bronze neck of the subdued monster.

It was ended. The man had conquered. The ant had control over the mastodon; the pigmy had taken the thunderbolt prisoner.

## NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES

*"Chautauqua represents the true and healthy relationship of literature and life to one another. Its students are scholars who are at the same time men and women deeply involved in the business of living."*—Phillips Brooks.

The Round Table presented an animated scene at the first meeting of the year, for the atmosphere seemed to be surcharged with good resolutions. New members who had been timidly feeling their way as Chautauquans now showed symptoms of a self reliant spirit born of experience. "Do you know," remarked one of the '08 Wisconsin readers, "our church is starting a series of special religious meetings, and some one not a member actually proposed that we suspend the Circle for six weeks! It was an appalling suggestion. Of course, we stand for the altruistic spirit of Chautauqua, but this seemed to some of us about equal to committing *harakiri*. Fortunately our pastor came to the rescue and personally requested us to continue as usual. He said that he considered the higher religious life distinctly promoted by the Circle and that he felt we were one of the most vital institutions of the church. Well, this put a new view of our responsibility before us. We've considered the matter a good deal and a little later, when the religious meetings are over, we propose to hold an open meeting with the finest program that we can conjure up, and try to show what Chautauqua means."

These utterances met with such pronounced approval from the Round Table that Pendragon assumed a slightly apologetic attitude as he said, "I was about to remark that I thought we couldn't do better this New Year's day than to reverse the time honored sentiment 'Ring out the old, ring in the new,' and ring in some of our older Circles, notably the 'Societies of the Hall in the Grove.' This spirited speech from the freshman side of the Round Table doubtless indicates that there are more of the same kind in reserve, but as they have already rung in the new to such good purpose I am sure they will be glad to hear from the 'old' who have survived whole decades of good resolutions. So let us hear first from the C. L. S. C. Alumni Association, of Syracuse, New York, which is proud of its nineteen years of life." "Yes we have a good 'constitution,'" responded Mrs. White, the secretary. "It has been the backbone of our organization all these years. These are our objects according to its dictum: 'The promotion of acquaintance and social fellowship

among graduates, the continuing of interest in Chautauqua work, and the forwarding of all movements for the extension of the Chautauqua Idea among the people.' We have had seventy-six graduates in our society and have a present membership of twenty. We organized the 'White Circle' of this city and as fast as its members graduate they come into our society. We meet four times a year, and the first meeting is always given up to reports from delegates to Chautauqua. This year we held our first meeting on Sunday afternoon and used the Chautauqua Vesper Service."

"Our Chautauqua Vesper Service is already rich in historical associations," said Pendragon, as he opened a letter. "One of our Kentucky graduates of the class of '89, Mrs. Leech, tells of pleasant experiences with it on a Mediterranean tour last winter. It was read on Sunday, February 7, and again on February 21 on the deck of the American Nile boat. On the 14th in the old temple of Luxor in a chapel once used as a Christian Church, and again on the 28th of February, in the garden of the Continental Hotel at Cairo. In March Mrs. Leech was in Palestine and on the 13th, in Jerusalem, with a little company of people, read the service in the garden of Gordon's tomb at the foot of Calvary. Later at the Hughes Hotel in Jerusalem, Dr. Herbert Willett of the University of Chicago, who was in charge of a party of students visiting Palestine, used the Vesper leaflet in connection with a communion service. And on Sunday, March 20, Dr. Willett again conducted the Chautauqua Vespers at Tiberius by the sea of Galilee in camp at twilight. Dr. Henson, of Providence, R. I., made the address and the hymn 'Blue Galilee' was sung in addition to the service."

"A 'Society of the Hall in the Grove' from which we have not often heard," continued Pendragon, "is that of Sinclairville, N. Y. Why they have cut us off from this privilege in these later years does not at present appear, and even now this newspaper clipping chronicling their eighteenth annual banquet is our only source of information. We must have

them with us next year to report in person and explain why they number graduates from '86 to '93 and none from later classes. Such a choice body of spirits, as this S. H. G. evidently represents, can, we feel sure, beguile some younger Chautauquans into the paths of systematic reading, and then help to keep them there!

"A near neighbor to the Sinclairville Circle is the 'Plus Ultra' of Jamestown, N. Y. These indefatigable Chautauquans represent the spirit of hard study at its best. They are all graduates and have taken various C. L. S. C. special courses. For some years past, under the leadership of Mrs. A. H. Hatch, who has especially prepared herself for the work, they have devoted themselves to Dante and Browning with very happy results. Photographs in great numbers have been at their disposal and they have enriched their studies of these two poets by following up the historical and literary allusions of the poems. Last year they took up the 'Reading Journey Through France,' and this year report that they are pursuing the journey through Belgium and Germany with great interest and pleasure."

"While you are speaking of Study Circles, I might make my report." The speaker hereupon explained that she was the secretary of the S. H. G., of Coudersport, Pennsylvania. "We want you to know," she said, "that we are starting our year in fine shape with thirty-three members. Coudersport is an old Chautauqua town and we have had a decade of experience which I fancy few of you can parallel. I won't go into details now, but merely assure you that we are wide awake and as true Chautauquans as ever. We are devoting this part of our year to Browning."

"Before we look up the Western Societies we must hear from two more in New York State," said Pendragon, "and I want to introduce the secretary of the Jamaica Alumni, Miss Bergen. It was of these Chautauquans, in their early graduate days, that some one said they knew their Greek poets better than most college graduates, but I must let Miss Bergen speak for them." "Our work," responded the secretary, "has been largely literary, but we have tried to remember that alumni should encourage the growth of their Alma Mater. We have never formed any circles, but we have encouraged isolated readers by inviting them to join the Alumni as associate members, and we have invited strangers, who have come to our community and who had been Chautauqua readers, to unite with us. Our special lines of study have been quite varied. We took a course in 'Epics' under Chautauqua direction, studying for several years the Iliad and Odyssey, the Aeneid, Divine Comedy, Song of

Roland, The Cid, Idylls of the King, etc. Later, we had a good time with Persian history and literature. Last spring we took up Nature Study for some months, and this fall we told the C. L. S. C. office that we wanted something 'human,' so we have been set to work on a course in Sociology and Social Problems. This we trust will have a good effect upon our altruistic spirit. We are certainly finding it absorbingly interesting."

"New York State has a fine record for Societies of the Hall in the Grove," commented Pendragon, as he referred to his card catalogue, "and I see many of them are represented here, but we have time for only one more report today and this from the Long Island S. H. G. who have just been holding a reception for their new president, Rev. George M. Brown." "We consider ourselves especially fortunate in having Mr. Brown in Brooklyn," replied the secretary, Miss Teal, "for, as many of you know, he has been a prime mover in the Connecticut Chautauqua which has become a splendid C. L. S. C. center, and he has visited assemblies all through the country and is rarely equipped as a leader. We had a most delightful gathering on the evening of November 17. As our members arrived, each received a section of one of the Chautauqua mottoes, which had to be fitted into its proper place, as a preliminary exercise. If there were any present who did not know the mottoes, they went home wiser! We met in Lockwood Academy, formerly an old Brooklyn mansion, and its spacious drawing room proved to be particularly adapted to Chautauqua reunions. Mr. Brown was greeted with the Chautauqua song, 'Join, O Friends, in a Memory Song.' Dr. Bosworth, the second vice-president, took the chair in the absence of Mrs. Harris, who has been our vice-president for many years. Our program was not elaborate—music by a ladies' quartet, an address of welcome, and a response by Mr. Brown. The address of welcome fell to me and I was glad to have the opportunity of giving our president a unique little souvenir, the handiwork of one of the members, Miss Spurway. It was a bouquet of carnations tied with ribbon of our graduate color. One end of the ribbon was finished in little rosettes of the four undergraduate colors, blue, gray, olive and old gold, and attached to the other was a tiny booklet with a leaf for each class, with its motto, from '82 to '04. Before we adjourned the following letter from Chancellor Vincent was received with great appreciation:

Will you express to the members of the Long Island S. H. G. my satisfaction at the election of Dr. George Brown to the presidency? His success in the past and his unchallenged loyalty to Chautauqua, together with his genuine devotion to all that is just and large and

should be engaged in some kind of definite intellectual work, either as a member of a circle or an individual reader, and the Society should call for reports of the status of each member at the annual meeting. Special recognition should be made of those who have added seals to their diplomas during the year. Third, as the representative of Chautauqua in the community, each Society should put forth persistent, intelligent attempts to start new Circles, or interest new readers. The social power of your S. H. G. gives you a splendid chance to hold up an ideal which will attract others. Plan the campaign a long time ahead

and work it out with the same care you devote to founding a library. Fourth, do your share in sustaining the C. L. S. C. spirit at your local Chautauqua, if you have one, and send a delegate to the Mother Chautauqua every year that you can. Direct connection with your Alma Mater is a source of strength, and the splendid vitality which the reports today have exhibited and which is true of large numbers of other societies of the Hall in the Grove, also, shows how important a share you have in promoting the work of the Chautauqua Circle. At our next New Year's meeting let us have even better things to record."



**FOUNDATION LESSONS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.** By O. F. and M. S. Woodley and G. R. Carpenter. pp. 269-166. New York: The Macmillan Co.

One more book that takes its place in the valuable series on Composition by Prof. G. R. Carpenter of Columbia University. It is admirable in arrangement, attractive in make up and calculated to lead the school boy and girl to read literature as well as to study grammar.  
P. W. B.

**PSYCHIC LIFE AND LAWS: THE OPERATIONS AND PHENOMENA OF THE SPIRITUAL ELEMENT IN MAN.** By Charles Oliver Sahler, M. D. \$1.50. New York: Fowler and Wells Co.

This remarkable book is the work of a Christian physician in high standing. His style is clear and unpedantic, his spirit strong, yet modest. The scientific value of what Dr. Sahler terms "psychotherapeutics," and the word "hypnotism," is made clear to the mind of the layman. While there is no attempt to uphold the extreme methods of Christian Science and faith healing, nor to discredit the present use of drugs, yet there is no mincing of the fact that "medicine of itself counts for but little. Dr. Sahler lays stress on the personal magnetism of the physician, and enforces his statements by reporting cases that he has successfully treated. Even the reader who is hostile to hypnotic suggestion as a means of cure will be interested in the author's admir-

able exposition of the law of vibration and the nature of the dual mind.

**THE ART CRAFTS FOR BEGINNERS.** By Frank G. Sanford. Pp. 270. Illustrated. 6¾x5½. \$1.20 net. New York: The Century Co.

A manual giving practical directions for amateurs who desire to learn something of the art crafts, cannot fail to be of interest to the many lovers of artistic handicraft in this country. Mr. Sanford, who is director of Art Crafts at Chautauqua, is well qualified for his work and shows an admirable amount of good sense in suiting his instructions to his audience. Mr. Sanford defines his purpose explicitly: "This book does not enter the wide realm of the professional worker. The solution of his complex and difficult problems is not attempted here. Its mission will be accomplished if it serves to open the mind of the student to the possibilities of his immediate environment, and if the doing of the exercises prepares the way for the more serious work of the professional craftsman." Mr. Sanford has, therefore, not worried himself over artistic theories but has shown the beginner how to use his tools and material to actually make something. If, through the interest thus aroused, the young craftsman wishes to learn more than this book can teach him and study the theory of art, Mr. Sanford will have accomplished a worthy object without prejudicing his readers

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either for or against any one school of artistic expression. The lack in this book of dogmatic insistence upon any "one" correct method and aim of art is refreshing to the nonpartisan reader.

There are nine chapters, treating respectively, Design, Thin Wood-Working, Pyrography, Sheet-Metal Work, Leather Work, Bookbinding, Simple Pottery, Basketry, and Bead Work. In each of these chapters the author gives full directions as to tools, materials, and methods of work. A large number of diagrams and cuts make clear each step in the various processes, and numerous practical suggestions derived from personal experience are an additional source of value. The author's evident purpose of making the necessary equipment for work as inexpensive as is practicable for good results, will be appreciated by novices who are uncertain of their skill but who wish to experiment.

Although Mr. Sanford is free from artistic hobbies, he nevertheless indicates two axioms which no one will dispute and which are essential to the young craftsman if his work is to be artistic: that, first of all, the article made, whether of wood, metal, or leather, is intended for use and its decoration is subordinate, meant merely to beautify it; and, as a corollary to this, decoration must be appropriate and not be, as a picture, sufficient in itself.

The book is neatly bound in cloth and is well printed on paper suitable to its many illustrations.

H. A. G.

**ENGLISH COMPOSITION AND LITERATURE.** By W. F. Webster. pp. XXVI—318. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. Webster's volume is like a large number of good books which have preceded it in this field. The attention of a teacher is attracted by the large amount of material and distracted by its haphazard arrangement. A good reference book but adaptable only to those whose minds habitually work along the same lines with the author's.

P. W. B.

**YOUNG PEOPLE'S HISTORY OF HOLLAND.** By William E. Griffis. Illustrated. \$1.50 net. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The author has applied his experienced talents in telling the brave, intelligent and noble part which Holland has had in the making of the civilization of Europe. Due proportion has been observed in the handling of material; appeal is made to young readers by elaboration of the picturesque part of the Netherlands story. Winning land from sea, making it

valuable, defending it, gaining dominion on the sea, destroying feudalism, leading in freedom and learning, enterprise in engineering and exploration, are among the main features emphasized. There are twenty full page historical pictures. The debt of our own country to Holland is not the least of the lessons to be learned from this volume.

**HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.** By Henry William Elson. pp. 911—XL \$1.75. New York: The Macmillan Company.

Professor Henry W. Elson has met the need of a compendious, handy popular history of the United States covering the entire story from the discovery of America to the present time. His history which has just come from the press is at once scholarly and popular; the style is clear, terse and fluent; and the author has written the book with such skill and enthusiasm as to make it most interesting. Generous space is given to the life of the people, their habits, modes of life, occupations, general progress, and the like, especially in the earlier periods when they differed most widely from those of the present day. In the discussion of the last century a greater proportion of space is naturally given to political and constitutional development. The civil war is treated fully and dispassionately. The brevity of the mention of American literature finds its explanation in the length of the volume even as it stands. In a dozen ways the reader is reminded of Green's Short History of England by this book—a fact by which the author will doubtless profit.

P. W. B.

**NOTES FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH COMPOSITION.** By G. R. Carpenter. pp. 30. 25 cents. New York: The Macmillan Co.

To be used in connection with *Elements of Rhetoric and English Composition*, first high school course by the same author.

**GOD'S CHILDREN: A MODERN ALLEGORY.** By James Allman. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.

A thoroughly disagreeable example of socialism gone wrong. The author is content to choose a beautiful and striking title, yet in the very beginning, after employing language so clumsily sacrilegious as not to merit quotation, he concludes with the remark: "The God will not suit my purpose, I do not like him and will not have him." Mr. Allman's humor is an attempt at the sort of satire which Byron and Shelly used with some skill but this modern allegory turns on such hinges that all high-minded and intelligent socialists must be ashamed of it.



# CHAUTAUQUA BOOKS



**Continual inquiries are being made regarding C. L. S. C. books in the courses of past years. The following titles are in stock and will be mailed postpaid upon receipt of price.**

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The Chautauqua Movement .....	By Bishop Vincent.....	\$ 50
Grecian History .....	By James Richard Joy.....	75
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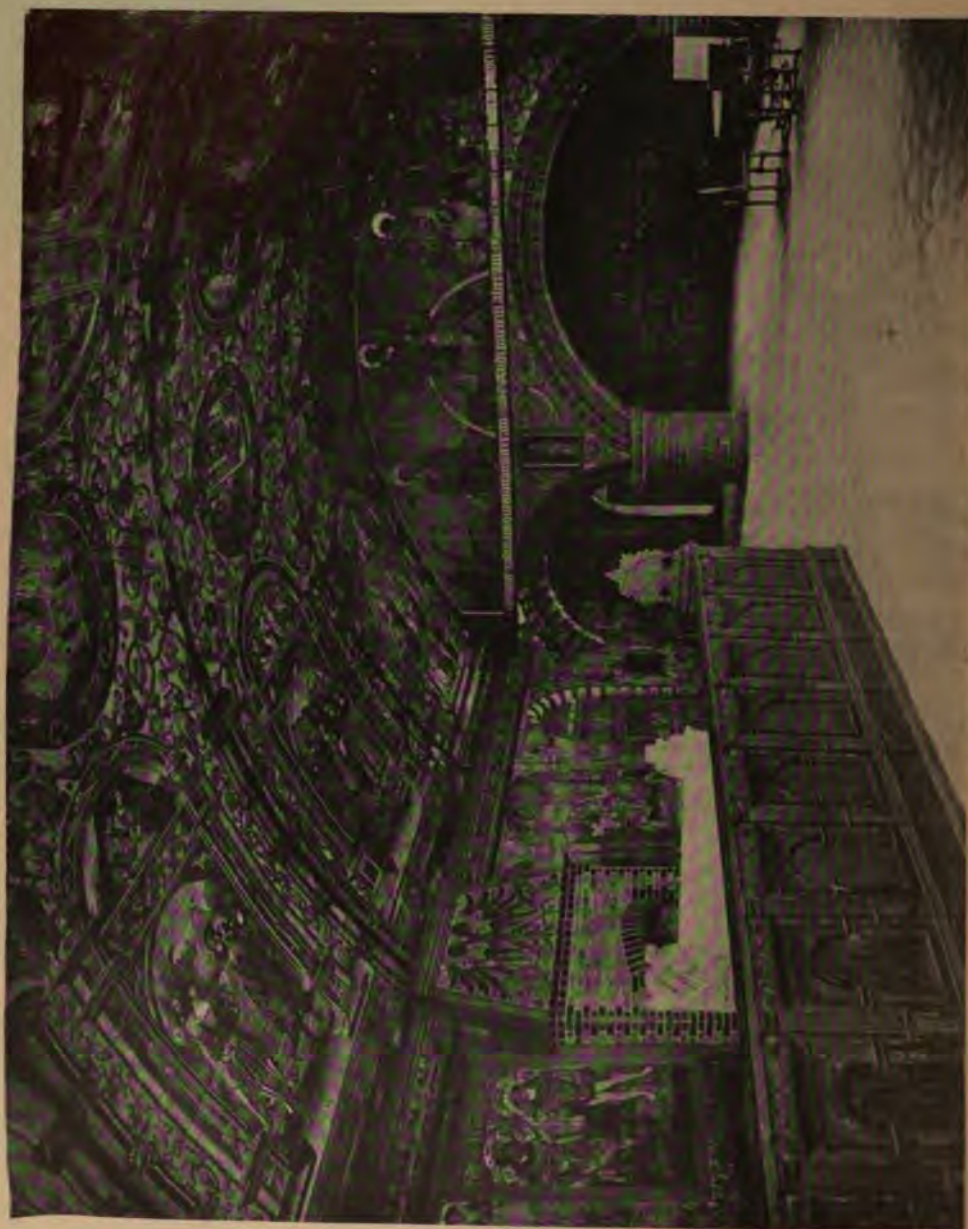
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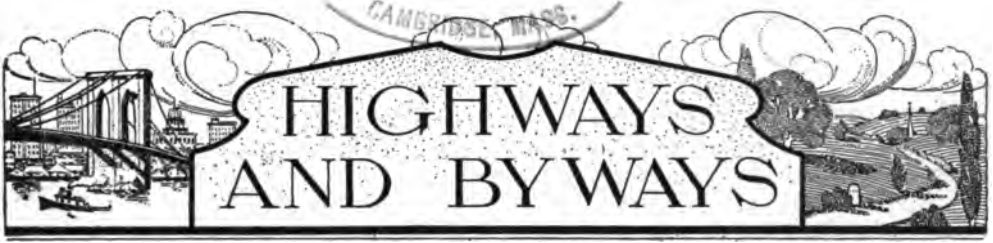
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# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

VOL. XL.

FEBRUARY, 1905.

No. 6.



**R**USSIAN autocracy must choose between gradual reform, between substantial concessions to the spirit of the age at the expense of discredited and decadent institutions, and revolutionary pressure from below. The great liberal movement which Prince Mirsky initiated and invited has assumed more and more extraordinary proportions. It has affected all classes and has made the timid bold and the indifferent aggressive and active.

The demands of the secret, unreported zemstvo conference became known all over Russia in spite of the censors, and indorsements of them began to pour in from every direction. Bar associations, literary and scientific societies, engineering and agricultural institutes, even official bodies in cities, counties and provinces—to say nothing of workingmen's organizations and students—improved every opportunity to pass resolutions and sign strong declarations expressive of sympathy with the zemstvo program, and especially with the call for a national assembly to participate—at first, possibly in a purely consultative way—in national legislation, and with the demand for free speech and publication and personal liberty under legal guaranties. The press was not permitted to publish any of these utterances, but, with some negligible exceptions, the pages of every newspaper have for months been given over to the discussion of the needed reforms.

And the agitation continues in the teeth of the absurd warning which accompanied the Tzar's so-called reform manifesto, ad-

dressed to the senate. The manifesto itself, awaited with impatience and hope, is a distinct disappointment. It is a recognition of the urgent needs of changes, but in no sense a promise of such changes. The document is verbose, pompous, vague, and hollow. It is not a charter of liberties; it is merely an announcement of certain indefinite benevolent intentions, of lame compromises and wholly inadequate relaxations.

There is in it no germ of representative government, no pledge of real freedom in any direction. The principle of absolutism is to be preserved intact at all hazards, and it is absolutism which has brought Russia to its present desperate state—to the brink of anarchy and revolution and terror. The reverses in the Far East, the fall of Port Arthur especially, have destroyed the credit and prestige of the government with the intelligent people of the empire. The hopeless incompetence of the Tzar's advisers, the grand ducal and military clique, is realized by all who are capable of reasoning. The Tzar might have escaped odium and execration by resolutely taking the side of the progressive element. Being weak, narrow and ignorant, he has allowed himself to be influenced by the Bourbon reactionaries. His manifesto has excited disgust and resentment everywhere because it represents the minimum which these blind and selfish reactionaries are disposed to grant.

The reforms decreed by the Tzar are as follows—on paper:

1. A just and equitable enforcement



of existing laws, with a view to securing the harmonious administration of all the courts.

2. Zemstvo organization, with a view to giving the widest latitude and auton-



GENERAL NOGAI  
Commander vic-  
torious Japanese  
army, Port Ar-  
thur.

omy to the various zemstvos, calling additional zemstvo representatives where required, and creating smaller zemstvo units, capable of dealing directly with the local needs of peasants.

3. Equality of all citizens before the law, this touching the much mooted question of peasant equality before the courts.

4. A scheme of workmen's assurance for the benefit and participation

of factory workers throughout the Empire.

5. Security of citizens against arbitrary arrest and immunity from harsh action of the police, *except in the cases of persons known to be conspiring to commit overt acts against the stability of the State.*

6. The religious freedom of all subjects of the Empire without respect to creed or manner of worship.

7. Abolition of all unnecessary repressive laws, *leaving in force only those designed for the participation of peasants and for the benefit generally of subjects of the Empire.*

8. The fullest possible measure of liberty to the press, and the removal, *as far as possible*, of the various restrictive laws.

We italicize the qualifications, the ifs and buts. The bureaucracy is to determine how far to go and where to stop, what restrictions are necessary and what unnecessary, and to what extent it will surrender its own power. There is not a single safeguard in the program.

The warning to the country to indulge in no hopes or visions of parliamentary government, and to discontinue the agita-

tion for further and greater reforms, caused several zemstvos to adjourn in sorrow and anger. A revival of terrorist activity is not improbable, now that hope of relief from above has vanished. There are even rumors of Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky's retirement, though at this writing they are without trustworthy confirmation. Such an event would inevitably prove a signal for widespread insurrection and revolt in various forms, for it would indicate the triumph of the fanatical anti-liberal faction. In any event, even among the moderate elements the campaign for freedom and responsible government will not be suspended. The autocracy is too dishonored and demoralized to compel obedience to commands so irrational and arbitrary, so defiant and offensive.



## Crime and Lawlessness in the United States

Certain statistics in regard to crime, especially homicide, in this country, have impressed American and English writers as carrying grave if not alarming implications. As a nation, it would appear from their gloomy accounts, we are one of the most reckless, law-defying, disorderly on the earth. Even the Sicilians, notoriously lawless and turbulent as they are, are not much worse.

The average number of homicides in the country is 9,944 a year, distributed as follows: Northern and Middle-Western states, 3,264; Southern states, 5,489; far Western and South-Western states, 1,191. These figures are declared to be shocking, and to prove the utter inadequacy of our laws and methods of administering justice or preventing crime. We are accordingly advised if we would "save" American civilization from a threatened reversion to barbarism, to do away with the elective judiciary, impose heavier penalties for crime, discourage the use of pardoning power, and so on.

It may be doubted whether these alarmist comments have much real found-

ation in the facts. The circumstance that more crime is recorded does not prove that more is committed; it may simply prove that our methods of collecting and publishing statistics are better than they were two or three decades ago. As a matter of fact, though population has steadily increased, there have been fewer homicides in each of the last four years than in any one of the four years "next preceding." The tendency, therefore, is upward, not downward. Moreover, as *The Springfield Republican* says, it is unfair and irrational to make sweeping charges against the country as a whole. Special conditions in the "frontier" and the southern states (with their negro population) must be taken into account. To quote that able newspaper:

When comparisons are made with such compact, homogeneous and long-settled countries as England, France or Germany, it should be remembered that that part of the United States which is at all like them in compactness and social order does not suffer from the comparisons drawn. New England's record is fully as good as old England's. The abnormal homicidal tendency, in short, is not national and pervasive; it is, strictly speaking, a sectional or localized disease.

So far as the general charge of "lawlessness" is concerned, it must be remembered that the United States is a very young country, a country which set out

with very little governmental regulation and which is still impatient of restraint. Tens of thousands of statutes and ordinances are annually enacted by Congress, state and territorial legislatures and municipal corporations. New offenses are constantly made, and it is not unnatural that obedience to them should be a rather slow growth.

Evasion and violation of law cannot be predicted of any one class in the nation. Thousands of workmen are arrested for rioting and disorder in strikes, but thousands of employers are violating the anti-child labor laws, and thousands of railroad officials are violating anti-rebate and fair-rate laws. Much of the prevailing lawlessness is connected with saloons, gambling in various forms, vagrancy, etc. It is needless to multiply illustrations, though we must not omit to refer to tax-dodging, with the lying and perjury which accompany it.

There is undoubtedly plenty of room for reform in our habits and our practices. It is equally true that legal procedure is not what it should be, but the country is not lapsing into savagery, and crime involving moral turpitude is not increasing but diminishing. And some of the proposed remedies would only aggravate existing evils. Repression and severity of punishment are not always effective and economic. Social amelioration, greater opportunity and economic justice are more potent causes of peace, order, respect for rights, and social harmony. Involuntary idleness leads to pauperism and degradation, and these lead to crime. Bet-



ADMIRAL C. H. DAVIS  
American member  
North Sea Commission.  
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AN AMERICAN SINGER WHO IS MAKING A  
GREAT SUCCESS ABROAD

—From *The Ohio State Journal*.

ter than punishment is steady employment for all willing to earn their living.



## Railroads—the Paramount Question

That great issues grow, instead of being made by politicians, is a truth illustrated anew by the extraordinary prominence which the railroad question has acquired in this country. It has overshadowed tariff revision, trusts, reciprocity and finance. For many years a purely "academic" affair, the subject of neglected reports by the interstate commerce commission and of bills and speeches and articles without number, it has suddenly, in the fulness of time, assumed an aspect of vital and practical importance. Congress is being bombarded by petitions and appeals and protests with regard to it and the action that ought to be taken by way of solving it.

Several factors coöperated in bringing about this situation. Perhaps the most obvious and direct was the attention given the question by the President in his long and noteworthy message to Congress. The paragraphs on railroads and their policies easily stood out in bold relief as the feature of the document. And the public mind was quite prepared to receive the President's suggestions and realize the gravity of the evils which had inspired them by several recent investigations on the part of the interstate commerce commission—investigations which had disclosed deliberate and systematic violations of the law.

What is the railway question? It resolves itself into two distinct parts: (1) The matter of rebates or preferences to certain shippers, which the law prohibits but which it has been impossible to suppress. These illicit preferences take several forms, more or less ingenious and indirect. One of the most serious is the so called "industrial railway" rebate. Big corporations construct a few miles of track, buy a few engines and cars, connect their "line" with that of a common

carrier and obtain an absurdly excessive allowance or rebate or percentage of the freight bill for their "terminal facilities." Such facilities the railroad used to furnish without extra charge, and would gladly furnish them now on the same basis. The "industrial railway" is merely a device of big shippers to obtain low rates, and the injustice to their smaller competitors is apparent.

Another device is the collusive and fraudulent "damage suit." It is just as easy to pay rebates as damages where none have been incurred as to pay them as rebates. In short, there are scores of ways in which the anti-preference law may be and has been evaded. To meet this abuse no new legislation is needed; strict and prompt and intelligent enforcement of existing statutes would do away with it.

The second part of the railroad question has to do with rates and classifications generally. In theory, the common carriers, enjoying as they do special monopolies, are bound to make reasonable rates and regulations, and when unduly high charges are imposed relief may be obtained in the courts. In practice, however, the shippers are without protection or remedy. The roads charge "what the



THE REAL "DRAWBACK"

—From the Minneapolis Journal.

traffic will bear," and litigation is resorted to in extreme cases only. Complaints of high rates, arbitrary and sudden changes in the classifications of freight and regulations are common and loud, but the agitation has not made much impression on Congress. It takes years to pilot a suit through the courts, while the commission has no power to prescribe or fix rates. All it can do in any case is to decide that a given rate is unreasonable.

What the business community has demanded for several years is a law giving the commission the power to impose a reasonable rate whenever it decides, after a thorough investigation, that an excessive one has been charged—the substituted rate to go into effect at once, subject, however, to a review by the federal courts. And this proposal the President indorsed in his message. By many railroad men and railroad attorneys it is characterized as drastic, revolutionary and utterly inconsistent with respect for property rights. These objections assume that the railroad business is similar to any other, and that rates, like prices of goods, ought to be left to "natural law." The soundness of this doctrine is warmly disputed, however, and public sentiment undoubtedly favors some control and regulation of rates by the federal government, either through the commerce commission or through a special railway court.

The outcome of the present discussion cannot be foretold. Probably some compromise will eventually be agreed upon and enacted into law. Secretary Morton, a former railroad official, and others favor a measure giving some public body the power to fix rates provisionally, the enforcement of the same not to take place until after a court decision, and at the same time legalizing railway "pooling" and division of earnings. With government control of rates, it is argued, pooling would become harmless. It may be added that the commerce commission has favored the legalization of pooling agreements under conditions not unlike those now proposed.

As the problem is a difficult one and affects vast interests, it is certain that no party action will be taken. The proverbial conservatism of the Senate will insure long delay and grave deliberation.



## Federal Control of Corporations

Next to the railway regulation question, discussed in another column, the subject most earnestly debated just now in the press is the need of federal control of corporations engaged in interstate commerce. The President did not consider it in his message, but Commissioner

Garfield devoted much space to it in his report on the aims and work of the bureau dealing with corporations, and it is assumed that he reflected the views of Mr. Roosevelt. This is the more likely as his proposals are but an elaboration of suggestions broached by the President, in a number of addresses, early in his presidential term.



JAMES R. GARFIELD  
Commissioner of  
Corporations.

Mr. Garfield is of the opinion that the time has come to approach as a practical and "ripe" question the assumption of federal jurisdiction over large corporations. Nothing, he points out, can be more chaotic than the state of American law as to these organizations. There are as many methods of treating them as there are states in the Union, and the result is complete confusion and corporate irresponsibility. The "strict" states are the victims of the laxity and negligence of those that look upon corporations merely as sources of revenue. Certain states have long had the reputation of being willing to grant "omnibus charters" to any body of men who will but pay fat fees and an-

nual taxes. Little thought is given by these to public interest, to the safety of investments in corporate securities, and to the prevention of fraud and "frenzied financeering" of the kind described by



PORFIRIO DIAZ  
Reëlected President  
of Mexico.

Mr. Lawson in his extraordinary series of exposures.

Granting the need of uniform and reasonable laws covering the organization and management of corporations, granting the desirability of greater control and supervision of them, what course is to be pursued?

Four distinct policies are possible:

1. Uniform action by the states.
2. A voluntary national incorporation law.
3. A compulsory national incorporation law.
4. A federal franchise for state-created corporations seeking markets outside of the state which gives them the right to do business.

It is the fourth plan which the commissioner recommends. The first is considered to be impracticable; the second inadequate, for the corporations that need attention most could not be reached under it. The third is too radical and involves an attack on the rights of the states; it may even be unconstitutional. The fourth is supposed to be free from all of these objections.

Under it the state would still create and regulate corporations. Only, any corporation desirous of doing business in other states will be required to apply for a federal franchise or license, and such a franchise will be issued only to those corporations that shall have complied with certain prescribed rules in regard to capitalization, organization, annual reports,

By this method, it is hoped, inflation

and fraud will be eliminated from corporate finance.

The proposal is not new. It was advocated some years ago by Mr. Bryan, but the time was not "ripe" and it received little attention. Now many indorse it as the best solution of the problem, though it is being subjected to very severe criticism, especially in the East. The chief argument of the critics is that it would *practically*, if not formally, destroy the power of the state over corporations and place too much authority in the hands of the federal government. It is added by certain lawyers of ability that the power of Congress to regulate interstate commerce does not, and was not meant to, include the power to interfere with state-created corporations.



## Municipal Museum in Chicago

A significant movement of special interest to American municipalities is to be credited to Chicago enterprise. This is the establishment of a Municipal Museum which will permanently serve an educational purpose, not only to Chicago which just at this time has large and progressive plans under consideration, but to every city which desires to learn from comparative study of municipal accomplishments the world over. Many of the municipal exhibits at the St. Louis exposition will be brought to the museum as a nucleus upon which Chicago will enlarge. Exhibits will be properly classified for purposes of comparison. Models, diagrams, charts, photographs, etc., covering city-planning, paving, lighting, transportation, education, hygiene, and other municipal tasks are being collected. France, Germany, South America and cities of the United States have already contributed to the first loan exhibition. The Municipal Museum will be housed in the Public Library building and the board of trustees expects to secure the services of a competent curator. A feature of the educational plan includes the collection of lantern slides which may

be loaned, and the promotion of the study of Municipal Civics in schools by means of visits and suggestive plans.

The German Municipal Exposition held at Dresden in 1903 proved the value of such an exhibit beyond question. The suggestive article on "German Municipal Social Service" appearing elsewhere in this issue of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* will give some idea of the civic lessons to be learned by this means. The St. Louis Fair showed an advance in municipal exhibits over its predecessors, but these were scattered so that effectiveness was dissipated. The permanent Municipal Museum in Chicago is a fortunate development in behalf of civic betterment.

### Impeaching Federal Judges

The decision of the national House of Representatives to impeach Judge Charles Swayne of the Florida district court was the result of a decision and inquiries extending over a long period. The charges against the judge are very serious, but there is a decided difference of opinion as to the sufficiency of the evidence to sustain them. Majority and minority reports have been submitted. In the majority report Judge Swayne is accused of such crimes and misdemeanors as unlawful personal use of a railroad while in the hands of a receiver appointed by himself; oppression of attorneys, abuse of the power to punish for contempt and so on. According to the minority of the committee having the case in hand, the only specification warranted by the testimony relates to false certification of expenses—to the unlawful appropriation of public money. The law gives judges \$10 a day for expenses, when such an amount is incurred, but it does not contemplate the payment of \$10 when \$1 or \$2 were actually expended. It is, however, claimed on behalf of Judge Swayne that he had misapprehended the law and was not guilty of any act implying moral turpitude. It is further contended that scores of federal judges and other public

servants have been guilty of the same practice.

But impeachment has been decided upon, and it is for the House to agree finally upon the specifications or "counts." The Senate will try the accused judge and conviction even on one charge will mean loss of office and forfeiture of the privilege to hold any position under the government.

Impeachment proceedings are rare in the United States. Since the founding of the Republic but four federal judges have been so tried. The latest case occurred in 1861. The whole list is as follows:

1803.—Judge Pickering, of New Hampshire; removed for drunkenness and profanity.

1804.—Judge Chase, of the Supreme Court; tried upon semi-political charges, but not removed.

1830.—Judge Peck, of Missouri; charged with arbitrary and illegal conduct, but not convicted.

1861.—Judge Humphreys, of Tennessee; removed for repudiating his allegiance and accepting a Confederate commission.

It will be seen that in none of these cases was personal dishonesty charged. Judge Swayne has strong defenders in the House and Senate, and his conviction is by no means certain. There is, however, no partisan animus in the proceedings, and an absolutely fair trial and judgment may be expected in this instance.



### Southern Suffrage and Representation

Much has been said since the national election regarding the political isolation of the South, and this notwithstanding

the fact that President Roosevelt, in a formal address and otherwise, has disclaimed any antipathy toward the South or any intention to discriminate against or "oppress" the South. The late election was a profound disappointment to the southern Democratic leaders, and the loss of Missouri was particularly unpleasant. It is natural that they should view with suspicion any move of the dominant party calculated to weaken the South or introduce into it new elements of division and discord. However, the general feeling in Washington (and indeed throughout the North) is that no anti-southern legislation will be enacted either by the present or the next Congress in which the Republican majority will be larger.

Anti-southern legislation generally assumes these forms: federal interference in elections on the ground that tens of thousands of colored citizens are prevented from voting for federal officials, and proposals for the reduction of southern representation in Congress as a penalty for the disfranchisement of negroes—such penalty being provided by the Fourteenth Amendment.

Little has been said concerning "force bills," as federal election measures are called, but the other proposition has been received with some spirit and determination. Congressman Crumpacker has for years advocated a congressional inquiry into the franchise laws and practices of the southern states, and a resolution to that effect is pending in Congress. He is urging favorable action upon it and objecting to further delay as needless and insincere. In addition to this several bills have been introduced providing for reduction of southern representation in the House of Representatives and in the electoral college.

The most noteworthy of these bills bears the name of Senator Platt of New York and is backed by the Republican club of the eastern metropolis. While it is not an extreme measure, it is not a carefully prepared one and its chances are

*nil*. The comments of Democratic Senators upon it are sarcastic and contemptuous, while those of Mr. Platt's colleagues are non-committal and anything but encouraging.

Briefly the bill provides that beginning with the sixtieth congress, March 4, 1907, the House shall consist of 367 members—or nineteen less than at present, and that the number of Representatives from the southern states shall be reduced as follows: Alabama from 9 to 7; Arkansas from 7 to 6; Florida from 3 to 2; Georgia from 11 to 8; Louisiana from 7 to 5; Mississippi from 8 to 6; North Carolina from 10 to 8; South Carolina from 7 to 5; Tennessee from 10 to 9; and Texas from 16 to 15. One section provides that whenever it shall appear to the satisfaction of Congress that any state has reduced its suffrage restrictions, its former representation shall be restored.

In a statement explaining and defending his bill, Senator Platt said:

This bill is framed upon the lowest limitation possible, and treats as excluded from the suffrage only the male negro citizen over 21 years of age, classed by the twelfth census as illiterate, under the 1900 census tables published since the apportionment act of Jan. 16, 1901. The aggregates actually excluded from the suffrage in each of the states mentioned are in truth larger than those used as the basis for the act. If all negro votables (*i. e.* male citizens over 21), regardless of illiteracy, should be deemed to be excluded, the reduction in the representation, figured from the same tables, would be nearly twice as great as stated in this bill.

It requires no evidence beyond the notorious historical fact for Congress to adjudge what cannot be denied, that the class of negro illiterates, to the extent stated, is practically excluded from the suffrage in the states mentioned in the bill, no matter what may be the nominal provisions of their respective constitutions or election laws.

Apart from the question of political expediency and public sentiment, one of the points raised against the Platt bill is that it is unfair and discriminative, in that it



EDWIN A. ALDERMAN  
President of the  
University of  
Virginia.



CARROLL D. WRIGHT  
President Collegiate  
Department of Clark  
University.



WILLIAM E. HUNTINGTON  
President of Boston  
University.



CHARLES W. DABNEY  
President of University of  
Cincinnati.

### SOME NEW COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

is aimed at the South alone, whereas certain states in the North, by property and educational qualifications, disfranchise many voters qualified under the Constitution and thus render themselves equally liable to the "penalty" prescribed by the Fourteenth Amendment. This criticism is fundamental and affects the constitutionality of the bill.

It may be added that there has been no popular demand in the North for a measure of this kind. The "anti-southern" plank of the Republican platform was almost wholly ignored by the speakers and organs of that party during the campaign, and the few Republican newspapers that referred to it did so in terms by no means positive or vigorous. It is true that in one Ohio district ex-Speaker Keifer made reduction of southern representation a prominent issue and that he was elected to Congress. But this issue is believed to have had little to do with the result in that district. He was swept in by the "tidal wave" beyond his individual platform.

To repeat, there is not the least likelihood of any anti-southern legislation at the hands of the present—or the next—Congress.

### Immigration, Numbers and Quality

In his annual report, the commissioner-general of immigration, Mr. Sargent, shows that in the last fiscal year there was a material decrease in the number of new arrivals and distinct improvement in the quality of these aliens.

812,870 persons landed in the country during the year—a decline of 44,000 compared with the preceding twelvemonth. It is important to note, however, that of this number 103,750 had already been in the United States, though they had remained aliens in the legal sense of the term. 640,000 of those admitted were literate; that is, they could read and write. 169,000 persons could neither read nor write, and an educational test would have excluded them. However, the adoption of this test is not advocated at present though in a general way the desirability of further improvement of the quality of immigration is urged by the President and several legislators and officials.

In regard to the "source of supply" the following details are given in the report:

Of the aggregate steerage immigration



last year, 767,933 came from Europe, 26,186 from Asia and 18,751 from all other countries. The greatest number of immigrants, 193,296, came from Italy, a decrease of 37,326 from last year; while 177,156 came from Austria-Hungary, a decrease of 28,855; 145,141 from Russia; 46,380 from Germany, an increase of 6,294; 38,626 from England, an increase of 12,407; 36,142 from Ireland, an increase of 832; 27,763 from Sweden, a decrease of 18,265; 23,808 from Norway, a decrease of 653; 11,343 from Greece, a decrease of 2,747, and 11,092 from Scotland, an increase of 4,949. Of the Oriental countries Japan furnished the greatest number of immigrants, 14,264, a decrease of 5,704; while China supplied 4,309, an increase of 2,100.



EVA BOOTH  
Commander-in-  
Chief Salvation  
Army.

land, an increase of 4,949. Of the Oriental countries Japan furnished the greatest number of immigrants, 14,264, a decrease of 5,704; while China supplied 4,309, an increase of 2,100.

Mr. Sargent refers to the effort of one or two foreign countries to maintain here colonies of aliens, the intention being that these emigrants shall retain their allegiance to the old-world governments and send home the greater part of their earnings. This is condemned as dangerous and inconsonant with American principles. Our liberal and hospitable policy contemplates the assimilation of the newcomers and their admission into the ranks of citizenship.

Another question raised by the commissioner relates to the distribution of immigrants *after* landing. At present, he says, they are left to the tender mercies of those who see nothing in them except a source of revenue. Nothing is done to guide or direct their movements, to prevent their settling in centers already unduly congested, to make it easier for them to find employment. And he urges

legislation to secure a proper distribution of aliens.

It is not clear that the federal government could do much in the premises. It could not prohibit newcomers from going to this place, nor order them to that place. It could not legally establish "forbidden areas," as has been proposed in England. It might perhaps supply information as to the chances of employment and land occupancy in the various parts of the country; but beyond the publication of circulars and statistics it would hardly go.

It has been suggested in some papers, however, that the state governments might do something to meet the need discussed by Commissioner Sargent. Some of them are eager and anxious to attract certain classes of immigrants, and yet no agencies exist in the leading ports to bring supply and demand together. Immigration offices are maintained by some states but the work is neither efficient nor on a scale adequate to the demand.



## Eight Hour Legislation and Contract Rights

No branch of the law is so unsettled, uncertain and confused as that dealing with what is called "labor legislation." Here every court is a law unto itself, and contractors, even absurdities, abound. A striking illustration of this may be found in the judicial treatment of the eight-hour laws passed in several states.

As a rule, these laws do not interfere with private employers doing private work. They provide that public bodies and municipal corporations, as well as contractors doing public work for such bodies, shall not require their employees to work more than eight hours a day. Is such legislation constitutional?

The highest court of New York has three times, in three different cases, answered in the negative. The last of these decisions was rendered a few weeks ago, and it destroyed the remnant of an eight-hour law that the previous decisions

had emasculated and disfigured, and this in spite of the fact that in the interval the Supreme Court of the United States had held in a Kansas case that a state legislature unquestionably had the power to establish an eight-hour day for the employes of its own agents or subdivisions and for contractors doing state work.

The grounds for this position were simple and clear. No man is entitled to state contracts. He must, if he wishes to obtain them, comply with the conditions the state chooses to impose. If he cannot do business profitably on an eight-hour basis, he need not compete for or solicit public work. As for public bodies, the legislature can regulate them because of its general power over them, being as they are mere agents of the state. Only when the Constitution grants the "home rule" are they exempt from regulation, *to the extent of the grant*, but no further.

Ignoring this decision and the underlying principle, the New York Court of Appeals adheres to its former view—that it is illegal and *ultra vires* for the legislature to interfere with municipalities or contractors employed by them in the matter of hours and that the eight-hour acts are violations of property and contract rights in the case of private contractors and improper restrictions in the case of cities, towns and other municipal corporations. One justice writes a spirited dissenting opinion, but more significant is the opinion of the chief justice, who felt himself constrained to follow precedents and to declare the eight-hour law void but who at the same time criticized sharply the logic and reasoning of those precedents. Some of his observations are of more general application, and will bear careful study:

I fear that the many outrages of labor organizations or of some of their members have not only excited just indignation but at times have frightened courts into plain legal inconsistencies and into the enunciation of doctrines which if as-

serted in litigations arising under any other subject than labor legislation, would meet scant courtesy or consideration.

The notion that a contractor can acquire any title or right to the compensation stipulated by the contract to be paid to him except on compliance with the terms and conditions upon which it was agreed to be paid, and may successfully assert that though he has intentionally violated his contract he is still entitled to his compensation, seems to be one of those fallacies that would never gain currency save in labor litigation.



AUGUST BELMONT  
President National  
Civic Federation.

## Issue Between Employers and Labor Organizations

The annual meeting of the American Federation of Labor, the most powerful organization of wage-workers in the country, and the second convention of the Citizen's Industrial Alliance, a federation of employers' associations directed by Mr. David M. Parry, served to bring into clear relief the present and chief issues between organized labor and organized capital.

It is denied by the Citizens' alliance that opposition to unionism *per se* is intended by it, though that is the charge which labor prefers against its moving spirits. The platform adopted at the recent meeting may be condensed as follows:

The open shop; no discrimination in favor of or against non-union men.

No formal recognition of unions and no agreements with them; the men to be employed as individuals.

No restriction of the output and no limitation of the right of employers to employ apprentices.

No interference by legislatures with the hours of labor.

No violence or lawlessness by unions; no boycotting or interference with non-union men.

The convention of the Federation of Labor, by unreservedly endorsing the report and recommendations of President Gompers, reaffirmed its belief in the union (or "closed") shop and in the union label; in eight-hour legislation for government employes as well as for men doing public work for private contractors, in legislation limiting the use of the injunction in labor cases, and in other planks of the labor platform. The position of the federation is that opposition to the union shop, the union label and "collective bargaining" (or recognition of and direct dealing with unions) is in effect opposition to modern unionism itself. That organized labor encourages violence or other forms of lawlessness, or that it arbitrarily and unfairly restricts the output of factories, is emphatically denied.

It is true that a few decisions have been rendered (the latest one in New York) against the legality of closed shop contracts providing for the employment of union men only. But the labor leaders attach little weight to these decisions; they attribute them to prejudice and inadequate knowledge of the facts. Besides, no such contracts are necessary, they point out; union men can achieve their object simply by refusing to work with non-union men, and refusal to work for an employer, for any reason whatever, is conceded to be a legal right.

This is the situation today. The union vs. the open shop bids fair to become the paramount industrial issue. The employers' associations are just as determined to win as the labor unions, though in the building trades in New York the union shop is accepted by the organized employers, in spite of the many difficulties they have had with the unions in the last two or three years.

## What the Paragraphers Say

THE PATH OF PROGRESS

[Luther Burbank of California has perfected a fadeless flower.]

The horseless carriage whizzes by,  
With puff and dash and slam;  
Through every breath of ours may fly  
A wireless telegram;  
The seedless raisin on the plate  
We joyfully devour;  
Things are perfected while we wait—  
Here comes the fadeless flower.

The coreless apple is announced;  
The whipless school is here—  
No scholar any more is trounced  
By teacher kind and dear;  
The scentless onion now is grown—  
Improvement every hour  
Into the scheme of things is thrown:  
Behold the fadeless flower!

The jokeless comedy we see;  
The tailless horse we drive;  
The honey served to you and me  
Comes from a beeless hive;  
Buckwheatless buckwheat cakes we eat,  
And gather strengthless power;  
Some new thing every day we greet—  
Observe the fadeless flower.

O, would they freeze some meltless ice;  
Or make some footless gas,  
Or furnish coal without a price—  
Fate is unkind, alas!  
Henceforth the maiden fair to see;  
Will grow reserved and sour,  
And say: "Bring withered blooms to me—  
No cheap old fadeless flower!"  
—W. D. N., in *Chicago Tribune*.

Emperor William, it is said, is about to increase the navy by levying a tax on the rich. They must have nice, tractable rich over there.  
—*Chicago News*.



SVENGALI UP TO DATE  
(Mrs. Chadwick and the Bankers.)

—From the *Cleveland Plain Dealer*.



## The Great Era of English Reform

By Frederic Austin Ogg

University of Indiana. Author of "Saxon and Slav."

**T**HE Industrial Revolution in England, like most such social transitions, was a slow and gradual movement, yet much too swift for people to keep themselves adjusted to the new conditions which it was continually bringing forth. As we have seen, the movement was at bottom an almost complete change from the domestic to the factory system of manufacturing, involving directly or indirectly the fortunes and livelihood of far the greater part of the population of the country. To it are to be ascribed practically all of the social phenomena of the closing decades of the eighteenth century—the drift of population from the southern to the northern counties, the rapid rise of manufacturing cities, the movement thither of thousands of country cottagers, the sufferings and privations of the growing class of factory employees, and the horrible abuses of child labor which so blackened this period of English history.

When the nineteenth century dawned, the revolution was far from complete and all of these good and bad manifestations of it were still perceptibly increasing. The profits of the mill owners

were making remarkable growth but not more so than (and in some degree in proportion to) the hardships and degradation of the working classes. By the year 1800, although English sentiment was far more easily aroused in behalf of the negro slaves in the colonies than in behalf of the much more pitiable factory laborers at home, conditions had become so bad in the factories and the homes of the employees that under the leadership of philanthropists like Sir Robert Peel, a strong popular demand was making itself felt for immediate and thorough reform.

By 1802 this demand had become powerful enough to compel the enactment by Parliament of a special factory law—the first of a long series which in half a century's time were eventually to work a happy transformation in the prevailing conditions of industry. Sir Robert Peel was himself an employer of nearly a thousand children in his factories but, unlike most employers of the time, he was deeply concerned about their well-being and ready to support all good and wholesome laws for their protection. He it was who first formally brought to the attention of Parliament the need of such legis-

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This is the sixth of a series of nine articles on "Social Progress in Europe." The complete list in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Some Features of the Old Régime (September).  
The Afterglow of the Revolution (October).  
Reaction and the Republican Revival (November).  
Era of Social Experiment (December).  
England and the Industrial Revolution (January).

The Great Era of English Reform (February).  
Recent Social Movements in the Romance Countries (March).  
Germany and the Progress of Socialism (April).  
Social and Industrial Russia (May).

lation. The result was the "Health and Morals Act to regulate the Labor of Bound Children in Cotton Factories," which prohibited the binding out for factory labor of children younger than nine years, restricted the number of actual working hours in a day to twelve, forbade night labor, required that the walls of factories be white-washed and the buildings properly ventilated, prescribed that the apprentices be given at least one new suit of clothes a year, and provided that they should attend religious service and should receive instruction in the ordinary English branches. That the prohibition of the employment of children under nine years of age and the reduction of the daily hours of labor to twelve was supposed to represent a marked improvement on former conditions is indeed a sad commentary on the evils which the rise of the factory system had entailed.

This first act, of course, left very much yet to be done in the way of reform. Even if it had been satisfactory in itself, it applied only to cotton factories, and only to "bound" children, or apprentices. Other sorts of factories, and children living with their parents, were not affected. The "bound" children came generally from the poor-houses of London and other southern cities whence they were taken by the mill-owners and given miserable lodgings in "apprentice houses" built close by the factories. The conditions of living and of work to which these unfortunates were subjected cannot be paralleled in any civilized country today.

Beginning with the act of 1802, Parliament was often called upon down to about 1840 to reconsider the whole problem of child labor and to curb the greed of unscrupulous mill-owners by ever more stringent legislation. Perhaps no laws were so persistently violated as were those of this character and it was only through the unceasing agitation kept up by such men as Lord Shaftesbury, Richard Oastler, and Robert Owen that Parliament was held to its duty of re-

ducing and eventually ending the evils of child labor.

Lord Shaftesbury was perhaps the greatest champion and friend that the lower classes in England ever had. His first important speech in Parliament was made in 1828, and from that time forward his energies and sympathies were mainly devoted to the cause of social reform, sometimes in public life, often in private acts of unknown charity. In 1833 he became the acknowledged Parliamentary leader of the Factory Movement, casting aside ease, influence, promotion, and troops of friends for an unpopular cause, unceasing labor in the face of bitter opposition, perpetual worry and anxiety, and a life spent among the poor and lowly. Some writers have even gone so far as to say that for this devotion to the interests of the factory employees the England of today owes probably more to Lord Shaftesbury than for two or three generations she has owed to any single man.

It is not possible here even to mention any considerable number of the many factory acts passed by Parliament during the first four decades of the nineteenth century. Between 1802 and 1815 little was done to prevent the gross violations of the Health and Morals Act, as well as the widespread abuses not touched by that act. But in 1815 Sir Robert Peel again brought up the matter in Parliament and secured the appointment of a special committee to investigate the whole problem of factory regulations. From that time the agitation for reform never long ceased in Parliament, and the next thirty years were filled with debates, testimony before government commissions, petitions, and the denouncing of existing conditions in newspapers and pamphlets. The objects which this agitation was intended to accomplish were various, the most important being the raising of the age limit of child employees, the shortening of the hours of work, the establishing of better sanitary and moral conditions in

the factories, and the providing of some small measure of education for children whose working hours were spent in the mills.

In 1819 it was enacted that no child should be admitted to a factory under the age of nine and that no one under sixteen should be expected to work more than twelve hours a day. This, it will be observed, was not much better than the act of 1802. In 1831 an act was passed forbidding night work in factories for persons under twenty-one and making the working day for persons under eighteen, twelve hours, and nine hours on Saturday. But this legislation applied only to cotton factories, leaving the manufacture of woolen goods quite untouched. It was only as a result of still more persistent agitation that the whole factory system was finally reduced to a reasonable conformity with the ordinary sentiments of humanity. This result was attained mainly by the two great acts of 1833 and 1847. The first of these, introduced by Lord Shaftesbury, prohibited night work by persons under eighteen in any sort of factory; children between nine and thirteen years of age were not to average more than eight hours of work a day; and young persons between thirteen and eighteen were to average not more than eleven and one-third hours. Provision was made for the children's attendance at school and for the appointment of factory inspectors. The effectiveness of this piece of legislation may be seen in the fact that whereas shortly before 1833 there were over 56,000 children employed in 3,000 mills, by 1838 there were only 29,000 children employed in 4,000 mills. In 1847 came the famous Ten Hours Bill which reduced the labor of women and young persons to ten hours a day. From that time until the present, numerous measures have been passed by Parliament to control factory labor, but these have all been more or less supplementary, simply rounding out the system of government control already established

by the middle of the century. One of the most important of these later measures was the enactment in 1874 of ten years as the minimum age at which a child could be admitted to a factory. By legislation and by custom the working day for men, as well as for women and children, came to be fixed at ten hours.



THE EARL OF SHAFTESBURY

The importance of factory legislation in nineteenth century England can hardly be exaggerated. The factory system grew up in such a way that it caught the government and people unawares and involved them in ruinous circumstances almost before they could begin to cast about for means of relief. As long as it was possible to do so, the government tried to maintain the attitude of *laissez-faire*; that is, its policy was to keep quiet and do nothing, in the hope that conditions would eventually right themselves without governmental interference. This hope, however, was groundless and in time the reformers of the Peel and Shaftesbury type made the government see that it was so. With the aid mainly of the agricultural element in Parliament these reformers gradually secured for the working masses such measures of relief

as have been outlined. "I tremble to think what this country would have been but for the factory acts," declared Arnold Toynbee. When we take into account the degradation and oppression from which the industrial classes were rescued by them it is not difficult to ap-



SIR ROBERT PEELE

preciate the meaning of this assertion.

All of the reforms which have thus far been alluded to dealt only with the laborers in factories and with obligations of employers to these laborers. Not only were many unfavorable features of the life of the factory workers left untouched but the unfortunate conditions surrounding the great mass of common people who had no connection with the factories remained still to be alleviated. Perhaps the one thing of all others most burdensome to the laboring population generally was the prevailing high price of foodstuffs. The price of wheat, which because of small production must have been high in any case, was kept at an exorbitant figure by governmental action, which, to say the least, was extremely ill-advised. England's part in the

long Napoleonic struggle had been considerable and had involved an enormous expenditure of money. For twenty-two years, following the suspension of specie payment by the Bank of England in 1797, the country had suffered from a depreciating paper currency, and when the war was finally ended in 1815 the national debt had risen to £831,000,000. Wheat had come to sell at 171 shillings a quarter, or more than 21 shillings a bushel. In 1815 through the influence of the large land-holders of the country a law was passed prohibiting the importation of grain at any time except when the price was as high as 80 shillings a quarter. The purport of this piece of legislation is easy to grasp. The law was intended purely to insure a high rate of profit to the comparatively small number of Englishmen who possessed and cultivated extensive landed estates. The tenants on these estates who did the actual work of cultivation were paid the lowest of wages and tended to sink steadily into misery and want. And of course such an artificial cost of food supplies bore with great severity upon all except the well-to-do middle and upper classes. The Corn Law of 1815 was certainly a case of protectionism run mad.

As long as England was involved in a life and death struggle with Napoleon her people had been content to keep their grievances to themselves; but after peace was permanently established there came a marked rise of agitation for the abolition of aristocratic privileges, such as the high charges for foodstuffs, which were so detrimental to the interests of the people in general. Writers like Wordsworth, Shelley and Byron gave fervent expression to pretty much the same principles of liberty, equality and fraternity which had been heralded by the early revolutionists in France. The *methods* of the French Revolution there was practically nobody in England to defend, but the larger results of that movement were looked upon by many as envi-

able. The problem to which the attention of the English people was now directed was how these beneficent results could be secured, yet by peaceful and unrevolutionary means.

To the more far-sighted reformers it was perfectly obvious that any lasting gain must come through national legislation. But the conditions under which legislation was enacted in those days were such that very little was apparently to be hoped for in this direction. The Parliament of the first quarter of the nineteenth century was very unlike that of today. It was a much smaller body and far less representative of the nation. The districts of England which were entitled to send representatives to the House of Commons had not been changed for about four centuries and had therefore come to be very badly out of proportion to the distribution of population. In the times when these districts were arranged England had few towns of any size and the districts had been made to consist almost entirely of such large rural regions as contained a fair amount of population. If one will consider how the population of our own country shifts about, so that our congressional districts have to be revised every few years, the state of things that had come to prevail in England by the opening of the nineteenth century will be apparent.

Changes which would naturally have taken place anyway were enormously increased by the Industrial Revolution. Until the time of this movement the mass of England's population had been in the south, and the House of Commons was made up mainly of representatives from the southern counties. But with the development of the factory system and the rise of the factory towns of the north there came a steady flow of population from all the rest of England to the new industrial centers. Small towns like Manchester, Sheffield, Leeds, and Birmingham grew rapidly into cities which numbered their population by the hun-

dreds of thousands. Yet under the old system of representation these large numbers of people had no voice whatever in the make-up of Parliament. Generally speaking the House of Commons, which for all practical purposes had already come to be the governing power of England, was composed of large land-holders, or at least of persons representing the interests of the landed aristocracy. It was



From "The New Harmony Communities," by George B. Lockwood.

this fact which had made so comparatively easy the course of legislation in behalf of the factory laborers, because the land-holding class had no pecuniary interests in the factories and was ready enough to curtail the privileges of the factory owners. So, looked at merely from the standpoint of the factory workers, while they were in no sense represented in Parliament, the ordinary composition of that body was not especially obnoxious.

Yet in one very important way it was so. It was this same land-holding aristocracy that dictated the policy of the Corn Law and proposed to amass wealth at the expense of dire need among the laboring people generally, both industrial



and agricultural. At the very best it was obvious that the House of Commons as constituted could be depended upon to look out primarily for the interests of its members and, further, that these interests only rarely and by sheer accident happened to coincide with those of the lower and unrepresented classes. It was therefore natural that, as has been suggested, men who really hoped to accomplish permanent reform through Parliamentary legislation should have felt that it was first of all necessary to bring about a pretty radical reconstruction of the Par-



WILLIAM WILBERFORCE

liament itself. And so, beginning with about 1815, we encounter demands fast increasing in frequency and forcefulness that there be a general rearrangement of electoral districts and that the franchise be broadened so as to include large numbers of intelligent and self supporting people hitherto excluded. Mass-meetings, petitions, and various sorts of more or less disorderly demonstrations became common occurrences. In 1819 the advocates of democracy formed the so-called Radical party, and thereafter for many years this organization led in the fight for the

redistribution of the representation, the broadening of the franchise, and the summoning of Parliament as often as once a year.

Between 1820 and 1830 the movement grew in importance, until the death of George IV in the last-mentioned year and the defeat of the Tory party after twenty-three years of unquestioned supremacy cleared the way for the realization of tangible results. The new king, William IV, replaced Wellington by Lord Grey as prime minister. Grey had for forty years been a sturdy champion of Parliamentary reform, and the members of Parliament who had been his co-agitators lost no time in pressing matters to an immediate conclusion. March 1, 1831, a reform bill framed by the ministry was introduced in the House of Commons by Lord John Russell. It provided for the disfranchisement of the rotten boroughs, the redistribution of seats among the counties and hitherto unrepresented towns, and the extension of the rights of suffrage in the counties to all adult males owning property which would rent for as much as £10 a year. Though supported by the king and the ministry, this bill was defeated in the House. The king dissolved Parliament and as a result of new elections the Tory power in the House was reduced still lower than it had been. Russell's bill was again brought forward in the fall of 1831. But though it was passed by a large majority in the Commons, the Lords refused even to consider it. It was not until June 4, 1832, that the pressure of public opinion, and even more, that of the king, ministry, and Commons, compelled the Lords to withdraw their opposition.

Few legislative measures in English history are to be regarded as more important than the Reform Act thus passed. It stopped far short of putting the English Parliament on a thoroughly democratic basis, but it marked a very long step in that direction, and indicated clearly the lines along which future progress was to

be made. Fifty-six rotten boroughs—that is, old electoral districts in which there had come to be an absurdly small population, and that often controlled entirely by some large landholder—were flatly cut off from the privilege of sending representatives to Parliament. Thirty more that had had two members each were reduced to one. This left a hundred and forty-three memberships to be divided among the more populous counties and the large towns which had grown up without the right of representation. Of the latter thirty-nine were now given this right. These changes did much toward equalizing representation in the Commons, though the electoral districts were still far from including the same number of people. Moreover, manhood suffrage was yet a long way off, for the property qualification for voting—an annual property income of £10 in towns and £50 rental in country districts—excluded all below the rank of well-to-do artisans and tenant-farmers.

Nevertheless the broadening of the basis of Parliament was soon apparent in some notable legislation, especially the act of 1833 emancipating the slaves on the West Indian plantations at an expense of £20,000,000, and the so-called Poor Law of 1834. The latter measure was one of special importance. During the first thirty years of the century, the introduction of a new industrial system, the costs of war, low wages, high prices, and frequent bad harvests had produced an appalling amount of poverty. The Corn Laws kept bread at almost famine prices and thousands of the poor scarcely knew what it was to have that article of prime necessity upon their tables. As late as 1847 Queen Victoria herself wrote that the price of bread was so high that she had been obliged to reduce every one at the Court to a pound a day, and that only second-rate flour was being used in the royal kitchens. The prevailing system of charity was unwise in that relief was given by the local officials to needy

laborers, whether able-bodied or not, in their own houses. In every part of England, taxes for the relief of the poor became very burdensome. In 1818, for example, they averaged 13 s. 10 d. for every inhabitant of the country. It is estimated that in 1832 one person in every seven was a pauper, not necessarily dwelling in a poor-house, but receiving public relief



LORD JOHN RUSSELL

more or less regularly. The growth of pauperism had become so rapid that Parliament undertook to remedy conditions in 1834 by the passage of what was known as the New Poor Law. This measure in a word did away with out-door relief of the able-bodied; that is to say, it required that no person physically able to labor should be entitled to public charity as long as he remained in his own home. To be the recipient of relief he must become an inmate of the poor-house, although work-houses were provided for the giving of employment to such persons, so that they might not need further charity. In general this legislation checked the growth of pauperism by making its conditions more humiliating.

Within a few years after the passage

of the first Reform Act, the more democratic element of the English people was ready to demand a further advance. The changes wrought had proved satisfactory as far as they went, but reformers re-



JOHN BRIGHT

Supporter of the Anti-Corn Law League.

garded them as by no means radical enough. The government pretty generally felt that enough had been done already and many men of ability who had been champions of the act of 1832 were disposed to agree. Lord John Russell, for example, in the first Parliament convened after the accession of Victoria (1837) declared that reform could not safely be pushed further. The Radicals were keenly disappointed at this attitude, for they felt that the good work had only been fairly begun. And, just as at an earlier period they had felt that the only possibility of progress lay in broadening the membership of the Commons, so now they again came to the conclusion that the make up of Parliament would have to be revised and larger numbers of people given a voice through direct representation.

In 1838 at a conference of leading Radicals and representative workingmen a definite program generally known as the "People's Charter" was drawn up. All of the demands of the charter were of a political character, yet they were so only because the working class despaired of social reform until they should receive a larger amount of political power. The Reform Act of 1832 had been essentially a middle-class measure, but now it was proposed that the political powers which were somewhat broadened therein should be extended to the great remaining mass of the unenfranchised. The six demands of the Charter were: (1) universal suffrage for males over twenty-one years of age; (2) equal electoral districts; (3) vote by ballot; (4) annual Parliaments; (5) the abolition of the property qualification for the members of the House of Commons; and (6) payment of a salary to members of the House. These things once attained, the Chartists, as the agitators were called, proposed to go on to social reforms on a large scale. Precisely what was to be done in this direction is not clear, for the movement never got so far; but something of the ends toward which the agitators were moving may be gathered from the affirmation of a Radical orator to the effect that "the meaning of universal suffrage is that every workingman in the land has a right to a good coat, a good roof, a good dinner, no more work than will keep him in good health, and as much wages as will keep him in plenty." Every mode of agitation was exploited to the utmost. Chartist newspapers were established, such as Feargus O'Connor's *Northern Star*, which attained a circulation of 50,000 copies a week; clubs were organized, mass-meetings held, and petitions formulated. In 1839 the Chartists held a national convention and sent a petition to the House of Commons bearing the signatures, whether authentic or not, of 1,200,000 people. The rejection of this petition was followed by riotous outbreaks in many parts of the kingdom. In

1842 a second petition was presented, this time demanding not only the "six points" but the abolition of monopolies, the repeal of all class legislation, and the redistribution of property. This petition was also rejected and popular riots became so general that the government was forced to make some concessions. These came in the form of a repeal of the Corn Laws, chiefly because of the Irish famine in 1845 which reduced 4,000,000 people to the verge of starvation and compelled the bringing in of food at the lowest prices obtainable. Early in 1846 Sir Robert Peel introduced a bill which was ultimately passed providing for a rapid reduction of duties on imported grain. The price of wheat immediately fell and there can be no question that the laboring classes profited immensely by the change.

Welcome as was the repeal of the Corn Laws, the Chartists were in no wise satisfied. Their demands went to the full extent of popular government and they refused to be content with anything less. In 1848, under the stimulating influence of the wave of revolution then sweeping over the continent, the Chartist agitation came to a crisis. On the sixth of April a national convention was held in London and plans were laid for a monster demonstration on Kennington Common four days later. A gigantic petition was prepared to be carried to Westminster by a body of 500,000 men. The government became aware of the movement, however, and prepared to meet any force that might be offered, the Duke of Wellington being put in command of the defense. When the day came, only about 25,000 persons gathered on Kennington Common and these, completely disunited in plans, were overawed by the government's preparations and allowed their petition to be conveyed through back streets in three cabs to the House of Commons. It had been claimed that the petition bore 5,000,000 signatures, but it was found upon examination to contain not over 2,000,000 and many of these were forged. The flat fail-

ure of this demonstration for all practical purposes ended the Chartist movement. As one writer has said, "when brought to the test Chartism proved to be a mere wind-bag, blown to portentous dimensions by demagogues and would-be poli-



RICHARD COBDEN

Supporter of the Anti-Corn Law League.

ticians." The agitation had had its value, for, if nothing else, it forced the upper classes of society to study the conditions of the lower as they had never done before. As for the demands themselves which the Chartists made, they were not immoderate and at one time or another have nearly all been acceded to. And though annual Parliaments, vote by ballot, the equalizing of electoral districts, and the lowering of the property qualification for members of the House of Commons have all come about in other ways than as direct results of the Chartist movement, still it would be unfair to say that that movement did not considerably hasten the time of their realization.

In the latter half of the nineteenth century there have been two great Parlia-

mentary measures tending toward the establishment in England of a pure democratic government, at least in so far as such a government can be attained through a very broad electorate choosing the supreme governing body of the land. These were the reform acts of 1867 and 1884. The first one extended the suffrage to all borough residents who were householders and paid taxes, and to all borough lodgers paying as much as £10 annual rent. In the counties all persons owning property of £5 annual value and tenants paying £12 a year were entitled to vote. This liberal measure, which singularly enough was passed under the auspices of a Conservative ministry, was supplemented in 1870 by an Elementary Education Act enjoining that every child in the United Kingdom should receive at least a common school education. The second of the so-called reform acts, passed in 1884, made the county franchise identical with that of the borough. The latter was already so low by the act of 1867 that the measure of 1884 practically establishes the manhood suffrage contended for by the Chartists. Counties and boroughs were divided into electoral districts containing fifty or sixty thousand voters each, and every such district is entitled to send one member to the House of Commons.

From whatever point one views the England of today a very marked improvement over conditions as they were in the early nineteenth century cannot fail to be observed. The industrial and social gains are perhaps most conspicuous. As late as 1844 we hear of children and young people in factories being overworked and beaten as if they were slaves; of disease and distortions found only in manufacturing cities; of filthy, wretched homes where the people huddled together like wild beasts. Everywhere was cruelty and oppression. Working people had freedom only in name. Today, although there is still far too much wretchedness among these same classes, especially in London,

Liverpool, and other large cities, no one who is at all acquainted with the industrial history of the country would begin to affirm that conditions are in any wise nearly as bad as they were sixty or seventy years ago. The law has compelled employers to treat their employees as human beings. All but the very lowest have a voice in their own government. Food is lower in price and wages are higher than at any time in the century. Statistics show that there is now no country of Europe whose laboring population is so well fed as in Great Britain. France spends £8 16s per head for food; Germany, £7 15s; and Great Britain £10 4s. Not only is food more cheap and abundant than formerly, but other material conditions, especially the matter of housing and clothing, are far more satisfactory than they once were. It is estimated, in fact, that Englishmen are now twice as well housed as they were in 1841. Since 1860 the rise in wages has averaged 57 per cent for each working person, and whereas in 1850 there were 48 paupers in every thousand of the population, by 1896 there had come to be only 26.

With this bettering of material conditions has come a refinement of social usages and tastes. The homes of the people show far more regard for decency and order than they formerly did; crimes of violence are fewer; the number of persons condemned to imprisonment is smaller; the treatment of the aged, the infirm, the pauper, and the lunatic is more humane. Amusements, too, are less coarse. As one writer has put it, "cock-fighting, dog-fighting, and prize-fighting have been suppressed, and their place taken by football, cricket, and other athletic exercises; while many a workingman now goes to a popular lecture on science, travel, or literature, whose grandfather would have spent the evening in an ale-house, or varied the monotony of drink by a fight." In the upper classes, and even at the Court, there has been equally marked improvement and the vanities and

vices which were so common a hundred years ago have been largely brought to an end.

## TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- I. Reforms in the Factory System.
  1. Evils to be remedied.
  2. The Health and Morals Act of 1802.
  3. Services of Shaftesbury, Oastler, and Owen.
  4. Parliamentary acts of 1819, 1831, and 1832.
  5. The Ten Hours Act of 1847.
  6. Importance of factory legislation.
- II. The movement for broader reform.
  1. Many unfavorable conditions untouched by factory acts.
  2. The Corn Law of 1815 and the resulting high prices of food.
  3. Necessity of reform through Parliamentary legislation.
  4. The character of Parliament at the opening of the nineteenth century.
    - a. Electoral districts not in harmony with distribution of population.
    - b. The large factory towns unrepresented.
    - c. The House of Commons dominated by the land-holding aristocracy.
  5. Formation of the Radical party in 1819.
- III. The Reform of 1832.
  1. Defeat of the Tories in 1830.
  2. Three successive reform bills, 1831-1832.
  3. Act of 1832 redistributing seats in the Commons.
- IV. Early legislation by the reformed Parliament.
  1. Emancipation of slaves in the colonies in 1833.
  2. The poor law of 1834.
- V. The Chartist movement.
  1. Radical elements dissatisfied with the conservative reforms of 1832.
  2. Framing of the "People's Charter" in 1838.
  3. Chartist petitions to Parliament in 1839 and 1842.
  4. Repeal of the Corn Laws in 1846.
  5. Failure of the Chartists in 1848.
- VI. Social and industrial improvements during the last half of the nineteenth century.
  1. The broadening of the franchise by the acts of 1867 and 1884.
  2. Elementary Education Act of 1870.
  3. Fall in prices of food and rise of wages.
  4. Increased popular intelligence and refinement.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Enumerate some of the social changes wrought by the Industrial Revolution in England. 2. What man first distinguished himself in the cause of factory reform? 3. What

was the Health and Morals Act? 4. What is meant by "bound" children? 5. What was the substance of the Ten Hours Act of 1847? 6. What caused the high prices of foodstuffs in the early part of the nineteenth century? 7. Describe the Corn Law of 1815. 8. Name some poets who voiced the demand for reform. 9. How was the House of Commons made up before the reform of 1832? 10. What circumstances led to the passage of the act of 1832? 11. Describe the provisions of this act. 12. How was the administration of charity changed by the Poor Law of 1834? 13. Who were the Chartists? 14. What methods of agitation did they employ? 15. What were their chief demands? 16. Why were the Corn Laws repealed in 1846? 17. Describe the Chartist demonstration of 1848. 18. What became the property qualification for voters by the act of 1884? 19. How have the English people improved in material conditions in the last half century? 20. What evidences are there that social usages and tastes are now better than formerly?

## SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Who led the movement in England early in the nineteenth century for the emancipation of slaves in the colonies? 2. What were the leading facts in the life of Lord Shaftesbury? 3. What novel of Charles Kingsley depicts the condition of the artisan classes in England about the time of the Chartist movement. 4. What socialistic community was established personally by Robert Owen in the United States? 5. Name two great writers of the Victorian era whose views on social and ethical problems are perhaps most frequently quoted.

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## Town and Country Byways

By Clara M. Stearns

**K**LOSTER Dobbertin! Where is it and how does one get to it?" I asked after my first rush of delight at the invitation to visit one of those sequestered communities of German gentlewomen known as "Damenstifte," or "Damenklöster."

"Up in Mecklenburg, near Schwerin," was the answer. Now as all that region between Hanover and the Baltic was wholly unfamiliar to me, the question at once arose how much of interest and of pleasure it could yield for ten or twelve days. A half hour with Baedeker's "North Germany" settled my itinerary, so as to include the famous old salt producing town, Lüneburg, the unique island town, Ratzeburg, the capital of the Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and Lübeck, Wismar and Rostock, the backbone of the Hanseatic League. These together with one or two Baltic summer resorts would make a good setting for my Kloster visit and I could then return by way of Berlin and the Spreewald.

Economy was to play a role in my trip; so, on the morning of my start from Han-

over, I walked scornfully past the first class carriages, flaunting their dark blue plush upholstery and their crocheted tidies, on, with an air of indifference past the second class carriages with their familiar maltese plush seats, up to the head of the train, where, with virtuous complacency, I chose the yellow painted depths of a Frauencoupe. Two and a quarter hours to my first stop, Lüneburg. But the vain pomp of blue or maltese plush, and the irritating commonplaceness of the yellow paint within lost their hold on the imagination while without and all about stretched the Lüneburg Heath.

Baedeker says, "The train traverses the dreary Lüneburg Heath," and for generations people supposing it nothing but dreary, abandoned it to the few peasants whom fate had put there to tend the flocks which browse a living from the heather. Now, within the last five or ten years, the Heath has become popular, and the real truth about it is this:

It is a region of no little singularity and of distinct beauty. Phases of primitive life are here still preserved; here bits

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This is the sixth of a series of nine articles entitled "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany." The complete list in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

The Belgium of Charles the Bold and Philip II, by Clare de Graffenried (September).

Twentieth Century Belgium, by Clare de Graffenried (October).

Hanover, Hildesheim, Brunswick, by Clara M. Stearns (November).

Munich: The City on the Isar, by N. Hudson Moore (December).

Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck, by Wolf von Schierbrand (January).

Town and Country Byways, by Clara M. Stearns (February).

Weimar, by Prof. Robert W. Deering (March).

Berlin I, by Professor Otto Heller (April).

Berlin II, by Professor Otto Heller (May).

of landscape are hidden away which can be found nowhere else in Germany; while with the landscape there belongs a people scarcely less interesting, of great peculiarity, rooted in the soil, of naive, unbroken strength—aristocrats among the German peasantry—now for the first time on the point of being discovered by the stream of travelers. The physical type here is the same that appears more refined in the patrician families of the heath bordering towns, and in the landed gentry of England—which is not strange considering that for centuries the heath has sent its superfluous folk strength into the towns along its edge. While the younger sons wandered away to the towns, the older sons remained at home and preserved on the ancestral soil the traditions of their forefathers. Thus the Heath has been a sort of mother soil for the neighboring cities. In another sense it is still a mother soil; for here is a part of lower Saxony retaining its individual stamp, and here is a racial type in its original strength. Here one learns to understand the native land in its proud, austere beauty, and one is set to wondering over what it is that forms the inmost core of nationality.\*

\*Dr. Richard Lindes' "Die Lüneburger Heide."

This home land of the last of the unbroken line of the Saxons has no rigid boundaries. Loosely outlined it lies between the lower Elbe and the lower Aller; on the east it runs over the Ilmenau; on the west it stretches at least as far as the Wümme and the Este. It is a part of the land where the Langobards were at home before the fifth century, when they split in two, one part to work across the Danube, and, finally, down to northern Italy; the other part to stay and become absorbed into the Saxon race, and to come under the rule of Charlemagne. The Elbe was for long the northern limit of Saxon territory, as it was the southern boundary of a Slavic tribe, the savage Obotrites. To the east, beyond the Ilmenau lay the wild Wends. Henry the Lion was the first to see the futility of trying to civilize these neighbors by such radical means as devastation and extirpation and so he began to practice the peaceful art of colonization by means of Saxon settlements. In the course of time what are now East Holstein, Mecklenburg, and Pomerania had become Saxonized, that is



SKETCH MAP



to say Germanized. But Henry's fascinating game of expansion proved to be his ruin. It so absorbed his interest that he turned a deaf ear to the cry for help which his old friend Frederick Barbarossa sent up from Italy; moreover it made him indifferent to the summons of the Diet. Hereupon followed his life tragedy. He was put under the imperial ban. Emperor Frederick came north in 1180 and crossed the Heath to chastize his recalcitrant subject. Henry was defiantly

And now Henry's domain, which stretched from Baltic to Mediterranean, was broken into pieces destined never to be brought together again until Prussia successfully essayed the task in 1866. This descent of a wrathful and avenging emperor upon a too powerful and independent vassal, whom he puts to flight, and therewith so divides territory and people that they must wait nearly seven hundred years before they again form a political unity, is far and away the most impressive historical act which the Heath has ever witnessed. About five hundred and fifty years after the execution of swift vengeance at the upper edge of the Heath, another of slower nature went on at Ahlden on the Aller, where Sophie Dorothea, wife of George I, and ancestress of the present royal houses of England and Germany, dragged out a prisoner's existence for thirty-two years.

After Henry the Lion's day, the Heath became successively a part of the Duchy of Lüneburg, of the Kingdoms of Westphalia, and of Hanover. Such is its history. The nature of its soil has prevented it from ever supporting a large population. It is a flat, often slightly rolling country, where vast stretches of sandy ground are overgrown with the



SCENE ON THE LUNEBURG HEATH

awaiting his over-lord in the ducal castle on the Elbe, but when he heard that his subjects behind him at Ratzeburg had broken into rebellion, he set fire to the castle and escaped down the Elbe in a fishing boat.

purple heather, *Erica Tetralix*. The region is, however, not treeless; the common juniper is fairly abundant, pines and firs are there in clumps and groves, while birches are much cultivated along the roadsides. Groves of oak, from the local belief that



SHEPHERD, LUNEBURG HEATH



LANDSCAPE, LUNEBURG HEATH

the oak is a conductor of lightning, are thickly set about the peasant's house and outbuildings. But sandy, heathery stretches, dotted with or broken up by trees, do not make the whole of the Heath; there are also great peat bogs, the result of ages of growth from the bog moss. Remains of prehistoric human life have also a share in the landscape, for there are thousands of mound graves, rich in stone and bronze relics. "Here too is the classic ground of the mysterious dolmen."

That the land might become habitable for man, an animal must be found that could live upon the inexhaustible heather. This essential animal was the heath sheep—the *Heide Schnucke*. It is a small variety, having black head and legs covered with short, straight hair, the body bearing a straight, gray, hairy wool, which often reaches to the ground. These little beasts are always moving,

always cropping; "much housing and herding are fatal to them," yet in a curiously close way they have influenced the human life of the Heath. Not content with helping the peasant to his living and with giving him an occupation, it was they who settled the boundaries of his farm and form of his cottage, and have withal done most to preserve primitive conditions—since with their browsing and cropping they hinder growth in everything except heather. They settled boundaries in the early nineteenth century, when definite lines were first set to a man's farm by the grazing limit of his flock. They settled the form of his cottage; for out of the crude cotes have grown the dwellings of the shepherd peasants. The old Saxon house was of two rooms, the cote, and the family room. It was the Schnucke that forced the shepherd to build in just this way and in no other: 'The shepherd family are the



FRÜHLINGSSONNE

From the painting by Fritz Mackensen.



AM SAND, LUNEBURG

guests of their sheep'." Taken altogether the people are peculiarly close to the soil; even personal identity, or so much of it as one's name stands for, is here merged with the ground; for on buying or inheriting a farm the peasant is henceforth, and by common consent, known by the name of his farm.

In character they are a people distinguished for simple fidelity, extreme honesty, unflinching tact, and hospitality. Economical they are of necessity. Even the well-to-do peasant takes a fourth class railroad ticket, saying, "I'll get there just as fast."

The relations between master and man are almost patriarchal; often the peasant master and mistress are called "Father" and "Mother" by their helpers. In politics they are still adherents of the old Hanoverian house, that is to say, they belong to the Welf party. In religion they have something of the Puritan austerity.

But all this is changing to meet the new demands that are being made upon the soil. The acreage of forests and tillable land is increasing rapidly under the influence of machinery, composts, scientific methods, and capital. To tell the truth the Heide Schnucke is no great source of wealth. Although the flesh with its gamey flavor is a highly prized delicacy and the skins sell for rugs, the wool is too coarse and stiff to be of much use; so that the animal as a whole is not nearly so valuable as a forest growth would be in its place upon the Heath. The gradual fall in the price of wool, together with the rise in the price of wood have dealt a death blow to the Schnucke; consequently there are only one-third as many now as there were thirty years ago. With the passing of the sheep goes the picturesque shepherd in his "brownie" cap and his wide mantle, who knits while he tends his flock. But the frugal peasant has grad-



CARVED DOOR OF RATHAUS, LUNEBURG

ually found other sources of profit than his sheep and his peat bog; he raises pigs, for which he buys much American corn brought near to him by way of the Elbe and the Ilmenau. With poultry and with bees, with wild blueberries, cranberries, and mushrooms he adds to his little hoard, so that he can honestly say, "Poverty sometimes looks in at the

window, but she never comes in at the door."

And now, in its last days, the Heath has become popular as a sight, as a *Stimmungsmittel*. Extra trains run out to it on Sundays. The newspaper rhapsodist announces the opening of the season with the ecstatic headline, "Die Heide Blüt!"—the Heath's abloom! Ari-



ists have colonized it at seven points at least within its boundaries, while Worp-swede just beyond, on the Devil's Moor, has given rise to a school of artists among the best within Germany. Novelists take it for their background, and poets sing its dream-conducive influences. It had brought even prosaic me under its spell when the locomotive gave its plaintive screech and stopped at Lüneburg.

Then came a delectable day of rambling in and about the old town with one who knows and loves its every nook and cranny. In fancy we revived the town as it was in the palmy days of the fifteenth century, when it was rich, haughty, and defiant of Emperor and Pope. Lüneburg was rich not only because of its salt wells, but also because of its location at that point on the great trade route from southern Saxony and Bohemia to the sea, where land transportation was exchanged for transportation by water. Abundant evidences of former importance still exist in the Rathaus, the warehouses, and the private houses. Am Sands, the principal street, is lined with merchant houses with their black façades, high crow step gables, and decoration with medallions and brick mouldings made to imitate rope.

In the olden time the merchant's house was his kingdom, with his family he lived in the second floors; his offices, the headquarters of a business with world wide ramifications, were on the ground floor, while his warehouse was in the upper floors. But the successful Lüneburg merchant had a very un-American custom of retiring from active business,

of putting affairs into the hands of his oldest son and of building himself, not a bigger house, but a smaller one, next to the old. On the Ilmenau stand some splendid warehouses and the last of the old cranes used for loading and unloading the ships. The Rathaus is a treasury of quaint and curious rooms, panelled, carved and painted with lavish art. In the council chamber, with its carved doors, panels and councillors' seats, the great judgments of history are portrayed with skill that has here made wood an almost plastic material. The so-called *Laube*, or judgment hall, bears the impress of artists who carved in wood and stone, who stained glass, and who made pigments tell, on walls and ceiling, stories from Lüneburg history. In the prince's hall are the electroplate copies of



COUNCIL SILVER, LUNEBURG

the Lüneburg silver, thirty-seven pieces of the silversmith's art of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, tankards, beakers, and bowls, largely gifts of retiring Burgomasters to the town council. The



WAREHOUSE AND CRANE ON THE ILMENAU

Berlin Industrial Museum coveted these as it did the Hildesheim Treasure. Lüneburg needed the money. To sell or not to sell became a party issue. But in the end six hundred and sixty thousand marks, about \$165,000, and these electroplate copies came to Lüneburg, and the real silver went to Berlin.



RATZEBURG, THE ISLAND TOWN

The next morning an hour and a half by slow train brought me to Ratzeburg station, where there seemed to be a choice of walking or taking a car to the island town. So I asked a bareheaded, blue-aproned, peasant woman how far I must go to get to my goal. "Only half an hour and a shady walk," she chirped. "Good, I walk," which she took as an invitation to trot along at my side, explaining as we went, that having sold her eggs at the station she was now on her way back to town and would walk with me. She kept me interested in the summer's unusual heat, its effect on the crops, and the natural beauties of the Ratzeburg region. She knew the best paths around the lake, where the best coffee could be drunk, and was conspicuously proud of her native town, which but comparatively few Germans ever visit. On my way to the station, four hours later, she again, apparently by accident, crossed my path, and waited to ask if I had not found Ratzeburg beautiful, all that she had boasted. To which I could enthusiastically say, "Ja, ja, sehr schön."

For had not every moment of that hour's row around the island been giving me delightful views of the wooded slopes on the mainland, red roofs, waving tree tops, and the cathedral tower on the island, together with innumerable glimpses into flowering back yards? By some stroke of especial luck had I not the very trimmest of young oarsmen, with whom I

had that most rare of all European experiences, that of not assuming to offer him a tip in addition to the regular fare? Was there not a book of violin sonatas lying on his bench at the boat house? Had he not entertained me in choice German with scraps of Ratzeburg history, with insights into the town life, and with his own really keen appreciation of the points of view? Had he not known just where to stop for the best snap shots, and did he not regret in all sincerity the obtrusiveness of the big white brewery among



MERCHANT'S HOUSE, LUNEBURG  
Retired Merchant's addition at the left.

snuggling red cottages? And had not his honest soul rebelled against the building of two dams across to the mainland, because he felt that they undermined the character of Ratzeburg as a veritable island town? And, above all, had he not





IN THE GARDEN, KLOSTER DOBBERTIN

her heart in the right place," as the Germans say. Nor was I mistaken, for she made my visit one continual delight, while she freely offered me everything that could be of interest and help in getting an insight into Klöster life and conditions.

Kloster Dobbertin is not only the largest of three Mecklenburg Klöster, it is one of the largest in all Germany. The usual number of Chanoinesse to a Kloster is six or twelve; here there are thirty-two places. Here, as elsewhere, the original quadrangular cloister building stands, at least in part, but remodelled to suit its present uses. The old groined cloister passage still remains. But it is no longer the shadow of the hooded Cistercian nun with rosary and prayerbook, that falls across the stone floor, but that of the sturdy peasant maid in her neat blue dress and apron, and wearing a quaint Kloster cap, as she goes to and fro with basket and bucket.

Scattered about the original building are detached double or triple houses. My

hostess, with half a double house, has nine good-sized, sunny rooms. Besides this she has, as do all the other ladies, three fruit and vegetable gardens at her disposition, and sufficient income to live in modest comfort. This Kloster counts in its budget twenty-nine large estates, all of which contribute from natural products to the Conventualin's income. Hence fire wood, game, fish, and pasturage are hers by right, while according to an ancient stipulation each lady receives an annual gift of one hundred and sixty pounds of table salt.

Among the Kloster's possessions is a large grove of splendid beeches standing on the opposite shore of the Kloster lake. The trees belong to Dobbertin; the ground on which they stand belongs to the neighboring village of Goldberg. Years and years ago the town needed money more than it did beech trees, so it sold its trees to the Kloster, but neglected to set a time limit for their growth. Goldberg has long since been ready to take back its ground, but the ladies like



KLOSTER DOBBERTIN

their beech grove across the lake; it is just the place to drink afternoon coffee. So there the Kloster has built a cottage, and put in one of its trusty old servants



HOUSE UNDER THE BEECHES, KLOSTER DOBBERTIN

as keeper of the beeches. Any hour of the day when the white signal shows at the Kloster landing, the faithful Krüger rows across, twenty minutes or so, to get a boat full of ladies, while his equally faithful wife at home is getting the tea and coffee ready. The honest pride of these two good souls in their service to the Conventualinnen was delightful to see. I begged to photograph them with their cottage. They were quite willing, but I must wait a minute. A few moments and they came out again, but this time dressed for so important a function, and in honor of the American, in their best black clothes, worn hardly oftener than once a year, and then only to the communion service.

The management of the general finances at Dobbertin is directed by a board of gentlemen appointed by the Mecklenburg Diet. Over the whole, as social head, presides the "Frau Domina," chosen for life by the Conventualinnen from their own number. It is she who receives each new member into the



KLOSTER LUNE, LUNEBURG

Kloster community and decorates her with the insignia, cross or star, of her Kloster. Of vows there are none, of rules but few, and these pertain chiefly to absences from the Kloster. Each Conventualin must, except for some special reason, spend six months of every year in her Dobbertin home. The justice in this lies in one of the purposes of the Kloster, namely, to insure to the gentlewoman the companionship of her equals.

A church or chapel is here, as at all the Klöster, conspicuous in the group of buildings. The tenor of the life is Christian, but in no sense morbidly religious. In fact the ladies here, as in the four other Klöster I visited, seemed a decidedly wholesome, happy set of women. Several times I heard expressions of deep gratitude for their peaceful, sheltered life. Yet they easily find a share in the world's work, for there are day nurseries and kindergartens

in the near villages, and there are always cottagers in need of human sympathy. Some of the Chanoinesses make books for the blind, while others find still other channels of contact with sorrow and suffering.

Among last summer's visitors at Dobbertin were Queen Wilhelmina, Prince Henry and suite, who were interested in seeing a place which has no counterpart in Holland. Perhaps they felt as I did, that to leave Dobbertin, this tiny, sequestered village, trim and tidy as a Dutch kitchen, with its comfortable houses, its shapely trees, its flower plants, its glorious big park, with its winding walks and tangled thickets, with its beautiful lake, and with its cheery inhabitants, was like tearing one's self away from a new found Eden. My only consolation lay in knowing that my hostess had put her latch string in my hand and asked me to pull it as often as I chose.

If you tire of the turmoil of Berlin, you can take flight to the Spreewald and visit the last of the Wends. Express trains run in an hour to Lübbenau, and there you are on the threshold of this pastoral Venice. The Spreewald was originally the *Wald*, or forest, growing on islands in the river Spree. In the sixteenth century the Wends settled here, and primeval forest has almost entirely given place to broad meadows, and tidy villages connected by multitudinous waterways. Although the Spreewald is but about thirty-seven miles long by one and a half to four and a half miles wide—a hundred and ten thousand acres—it is cut up by about three hundred natural and artificial watercourses. Since there are neither roads nor horses, these canals are the highways of profit as of pleasure, and the shallow, flat bottomed boat with the boatman standing at the stern, punting with his long oar shod with a crescent of steel, horns down, is the sole vehicle of transportation. The peculiar nature of this region has isolated its Wendish folk and enabled them to keep to a surprising degree their own language, customs and superstitions.

The traveler sees most and best by taking a Saturday morning train for Lübbenau. He then has the whole day for punting over to Burg where he spends the night at the little inn, and goes to nine o'clock service at the church—this for the sake of seeing a bevy of the women in their picturesque costume—and then punts back to Lübbenau after dinner. Almost noiselessly propelled one glides for hours among scenes of quiet beauty, between long stretches of waving grass, or, if after the harvest, among golden stubble fields, thickly studded with small ricks of fine hay, soft and smooth as flax on a distaff. Clumps of oaks, elms and beeches, lines of poplars and willows, lend depth and perspective to the landscape. Sometimes the canal banks are hedged with red and white flowering beans, or are overrun with luxuriant

squash vines, gay with their yellow flowers and fruit. Your boat slips into a tiny village of quaint log houses, their straw thatched roofs flecked with green and gray mosses. Patches of gaudy asters and dahlias flaunt at every door. As you pass you see much of the housework going on at the water's edge. You see a stocky strong race of women, barefooted or wearing the home-made wooden soled slippers, clothed in stout dark cotton dresses and aprons, always with the white headdress. Now a woman is scouring with a handful of rushes her brass and copper kettles, or her white oaken, brass bound churn; now one is rinsing the family washing in the stream.

Everywhere there is a delicious stillness; the most you hear is the whistle of the man at work in his garden, the whetting of a scythe, or the far away stroke of the hour from the Lübbenau church clock. Somewhere you meet the postman going his rounds by boat; and further on the old woman who is bringing her boatful of potatoes, cabbages, beans and cucumbers out to Lübbenau, in order to exchange them for coffee and coal. A long low mass of new mown hay comes



POSTMAN ON HIS ROUND, SPREEWALD

floating toward you, but behind it is a sturdy woman punting it home. Her red skirt is tucked up over her dark blue petticoat, her white linen headdress and the short white sleeves of her guimpe intensify the brown of her sunburned face and arms. But here comes a boat with more festive occupants, a village beauty,

white as a swan in her fresh apron, neckerchief and headdress, and for boatman, her lover in his best Sunday garb. "The wedding must be near," your boatman muses aloud, "for the banns were read last Sunday." And after a question or two he tells how the bride will take formal leave of her parents, and the groom give them formal thanks; how the best man

mon German symbol of wifely authority; a man by marrying "comes under the slipper," if hen pecked he "stands under the slipper;" while the tyrannical wife "swings the slipper."

At "The Jolly Pike" in Lehde you can stop for a cup of coffee, or if you go on to another little inn at Leipe you can get strips of queer but delicious cheese-cake and coffee-cake. At the old Kannomühle your boatman stops abruptly and says, "Good sour milk." Evidently he has never had a passenger so unsophisticated as not to crave "good sour milk," and you would not shake his childlike confidence in the good things of the earth. So under the trees you go—they were apple trees in bloom the first time we saw them—and you get a big brown bowl of sour milk covered with thick cream, a sifting of rye bread crumbs and another of sugar, and you discover that while "gute dicke milch" is not exactly suited to afternoon teas and stand up receptions, it is not half bad when eaten in such surroundings.

It is the Sunday morning church going at Burg that most attracts sight seers. Then boats come from far and near laden with the peasant women dressed in their gay national costume. This consists of the short and very bright colored skirt, preferably red or blue, a black velvet bodice, a long and full black silk or, usually, white apron, a white neckerchief and a simple though ungraceful white headdress. Here are still people who wear clothing for which they have grown and spun the wool and the flax. And each of the petticoats is counted as so much capital, for a girl who has not her Truhe or high-chest full of them is not "forehanded," and lacks, therefore, social standing. In their thickly wadded skirts the women come swinging along the footpaths from the nearby farms and villages, over the high narrow bridges, and join the parties from the boats, before the church. There the women knot together quite apart from the men and await the stroke of nine, after which they file in



PEASANT WOMAN, SPREEWALD

will admonish the groom to practice the domestic virtues, and will thank the crowd of onlookers about the church door for their attention. He tells you, too, how along with the dancing at the feast, there will be great sport in stealing one of the bride's slippers, in hiding it and in hunting it, and then how the bride will, during the wedding feast, shyly exchange the groom's plate for a beautiful slipper—this in reference to the slipper as a com-



HOUSES AT LEIPE, SPREEWALD

and fill the body of the house, while the men occupy the gallery.

Here then are people actually taking their sermon in Wendish, and they are a people who have not only held to their peculiar language, but have clung also to their customs and superstitions. When death enters their homes they will open their windows to give the departing soul easy exit. Before the burial they will set the coffin about with lanterns, one for each year of the life just spent, while the village girls form a circle and sing for the comfort of the women relatives sitting by clothed all in white. When the coffin is taken from the house these people will at once overturn the bench on which it has stood lest some one inadvertently sit on it, and die soon afterwards. And when the head of the family goes they will tell the bees and the domestic animals of their loss of the old master and the change to the new.

Then you remember that all these folk

peculiarities are being lost under the pressure of the Prussian school system, and through the erosive influence of fifty thousand summer visitors.

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. In what part of Germany is Lüneburg Heath?
2. What kind of a country is it?
3. What sort of people live there?
4. What is the history of the Heath?
5. For what reasons was Lüneburg once a rich and famous city?
6. What is the history of the Lüneburg Silver?
7. What do you know of the political history of Hanover?
8. Who is in line to be next Empress of Germany?
9. What are the Klöster?
10. What system of management and support have the Klöster?
11. Where is the Spreewald?
12. Who are the Wends?
13. What are some of the peculiar folk customs still extant among the Wends?

#### SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Who was Till Eulenspiegel?
2. What famous scientist taught at the University of Rostock? What were some of his greatest discoveries?
3. Who was Hugo Grotius?
4. What great Prussian general was born at Rostock?
5. When and what is "Decoration Day" in Germany?
6. What is the significance of St. John's Eve?
7. What is the origin of the word "heathen"?
8. What great German musician was a choir boy at St. Michael's church, Lüneburg?

[For bibliography see C. L. S. C. Round Table in this issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.]



## Beethoven and His Music, II

By Thomas Whitney Surette

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**I**N the January number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN we considered the first movement of Beethoven's great †Symphony, No. 5, with especial attention to its significance in relation to the stirring events during which it was produced. This article deals with the three succeeding movements; the complete plan is as follows:

I. Allegro \*con brio; in \*\*"Sonata Form."

II. Andante \*|\*con moto: Variation Form.

III. Allegro: (in effect a) Scherzo.

IV. Allegro.

Let us always keep in mind that the general tendency of pure music has been toward the expression of man's nature in all its fullness, and that the art having gone through a period when beauty was its end, and having, as it were, attained to perfection in expressing pure beauty,

†The Fifth Symphony may be had in the form of specially edited and annotated rolls for the pianola, in The Music Lovers Library of the Educational Department of the Aeolian Co., New York.

\*Con brio: With life or spirit.

\*\*"Sonata Form." See the November CHAUTAUQUAN, page 249.

\*|\*Con moto: This slightly increases the speed of Andante, and means with motion or impulse.

it now—in the time of Beethoven—seeks to widen its domain and include the complete range of human feeling. Mozart's music, in other words, is unclouded by passion, and does not give utterance to human feeling in all its phases. It does not attempt to express, for example, rage, or irony, or despair. Beethoven, as compared with Mozart, is a man of deeper feeling, more conscious, more individual, and, at the same time, more universal: that is, he is a thinker who sees the significance of what goes on around him, fights against restraint, refuses to mould himself to a common pattern, and while intensely set upon his own point of view, really expresses the strivings of his time towards intellectual independence.

There was a striking anomaly in his position in Vienna. He was, intellectually, a revolutionist, yet he was sought after by the class whose very existence depended on putting down revolution. Many of his friends were aristocrats; a letter sent to him in the year 1824 urging his reappearance after a period of seclusion, and praying him to grant the public opportunities to hear new works, was signed by Prince Lichnowsky, Count von Palfy, Baron von Schweiger, Count Czernin.

This is the sixth of a series of nine articles on "German Master Musicians." A partial list in THE CHAUTAUQUAN from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Bach (September), by William Armstrong. Handel (October), Haydn (November). Mozart (December), Beethoven I (January), Beethoven II (February), Schubert (March), Schumann (April), Wagner (May), by Thomas Whitney Surette.

and many other noblemen as well as by publishers like Artaria & Co., and by musicians. Louis XVIII, King of France, the Emperor of Russia, the King of Prussia, and the King of Saxony, all accepted offers from him for his great Mass, and the French king sent him a gold medal. From the King of Prussia came a tentative offer of a decoration, but Beethoven preferred to accept fifty ducats.

Many evidences of his unfitness to meet the exigencies of daily life are to be found in the various biographies of Beethoven. He paid little attention to his dinner (a sure sign of fanaticism in a man!) and was continually in trouble over small things; he seemed to think them of no importance—not a good philosophy for every day. Schindler records in his Biography the following passage from Beethoven's journal:

1819.

31st January. Given warning to the housekeeper.

15th February. The kitchen maid came.

8th March. The kitchen maid gave a fortnight's warning.

22nd of this month, the new housekeeper came.

12th May. Arrived at Mödling.

"Miser et pauper sum."

14th May. The housemaid came; to have six florins per month.

20th May. Given warning to the housekeeper.

The tributes to Beethoven's genius are all the more striking in view of the uncertainty of his temper, and the brusqueness of his language at real or fancied offences on the part of his friends. The three following notes were dispatched by Beethoven after an attempt at a good humored piece of strategy by means of which the three persons addressed hoped to persuade him to make certain arrangements for a concert:

*To the Count Moritz von Lichnowsky—*

"I despise artifices. Let me have no more of your visits. The concert will not take place."

BEETHOVEN.

*To M. Schuppanzigh—*

"Let me see you no more. I shall give no concert."

BEETHOVEN.

*To M. Schindler—*

"Do not come near me again until I send for you. No concert."

BEETHOVEN.

Unhappy events like these were forgotten by his friends who realized how little justice they did to Beethoven's goodness of heart. The reader should remember the tragic nature of Beethoven's life, and not lose a sense of proportion in estimating his character. The greatest misfortune hung over him almost from the beginning of his career, in an impending deafness, which, by the year 1801 had been declared by his physicians to be incurable. He faced the tragedy of a total loss of hearing, which is, for a composer, perhaps the most terrible of all tragedies. Add to this his disappointment in love, the ingratitude of his nephew, Carl, whom he cared for and supported, the loneliness of his life and his troubles about money, and you have a sum total of miseries calculated to disturb the serenity of the most philosophical. Beethoven emerges from the fire, not indeed unscathed, but, nevertheless, triumphant.

Before taking up the last three movements of the Fifth Symphony it is desirable that the reader should keep in mind the difference between Mozart's Sonatas or Symphonies and those of Beethoven as regards both matter and style. In the January CHAUTAUQUAN reference was made to the emotional significance of Beethoven's themes, and the frequent absence of pure lyric quality. Mozart's music in Sonata and Symphony generally consists of a series of lyric passages according to the prevailing form of the Sonata. The themes, being, for the most part, complete in themselves—entities, as it were—are not susceptible of development, as are themes like that of the first movement of the Fifth Symphony of Beethoven. In other words the contour, or line, of the Beethoven theme is jagged,

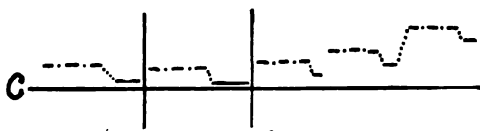


containing certain positive rhythmic figures of such strongly marked characteristics as to lend themselves to treatment in detail, while Mozart's themes are in long graceful lines that hardly admit of breaking up at all.

We shall attempt to make this clear in the following manner: the horizontal line represents the plane of the key, the waving line the curve of the melody.



First four measures and a half of first theme of Mozart's Pianoforte Sonata, No. 10 in Schirmer edition.



First nine measures of Beethoven's Fifth Symphony.

It will be perceived that the first of these diagrams has a continuous and graceful contour, while the second is strongly marked and angular. The short horizontal lines represent pauses. Now if one were to try to make a *design* from these two diagrams it would be found that the latter, through having very characteristic elements, would lend itself more readily than would the former. The Beethoven theme is not so much an entity as a series of units, and each of those units, characteristic in itself, admirably serves as material for discussion.

This rather rough attempt at visualizing the two themes may be of some assistance to students in forming an idea of the possibilities of thematic development in music. It must be kept in mind that thematic development is not always adopted in Symphonic music; that in slow movements it is seldom used because there the appeal is more to the emotions than to the intelligence. The point we desire to bring out here is that in the first movement of Mozart's Sonatas, where thematic de-

velopment does take place, the themes are usually not so well adapted to that kind of treatment as are the corresponding themes of Beethoven.

Let us now turn to the second movement of the Fifth Symphony, commonly called "The Slow Movement," or "The Andante." Here we find a lyric style full of individuality: melodies that are continuous like that of Mozart (expressed by the first of the foregoing diagrams) yet having certain characteristic short passages (motifs) that lend themselves to new treatment. The first theme is composed of two sections, the first of which extends to measure \*(23). The last half of this is not entirely new material but grows out of what has preceded it [compare (13-14) with (17-18) and (15-16) with (21-23)].

Beethoven's sketch-books, referred to in the last article of this series, contain versions of this first theme which reveal how much thought he gave it before it was satisfactory to him. One of these early attempts is here given; it should be compared with the opening strain of the movement.



The second section of the theme begins at (23) and extends to (49), the last part of this, also, (39-49), begins with a motif from (23-24), but resolves itself into a most expressive and beautiful passage very characteristic of Beethoven. Here, in fact, we come immediately upon one of those wonderful moments in Beethoven's Symphonies where the music "yearning like a God in pain" touches the inmost recesses of our being as no music before his time had done.

With these forty-nine measures we have finished the subject matter of this movement, but how wonderful is what

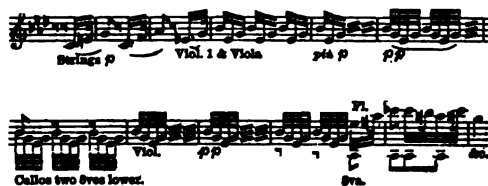
\*Numbers in parentheses always refer to consecutively numbered measures of each movement. Students should number the music counting the first partial measure as one.

follows, and how touching the varieties of mood this theme expresses. First (50) we hear it in less serious vein in the form of variations given out by the violas and 'cellos [(50-60) contain the original melody in variation form]; then the second section is given out with the melody in the clarinets and bassoons, to be followed (81) by the same, now proclaiming its message loudly; this is followed in turn by a long sustained passage (91-97) accompanied by a mysterious reiterated note in the 'cellos. Here we have an illustration of the infinite possibilities of the symphony in a master's hands. No words can characterize this solemn strain; no language can express the significance of the muttered undertone of the 'cellos: it has to be felt by the listener, this is a realm into which language cannot enter. Then follows a further variation of the initial theme (99) which is finally taken up (115) by the basses and 'cellos against a succession of loud chords from the rest of the orchestra. At (125) a curiously whimsical passage follows which finally (137) loses part of its physiognomy in a long series of thirds crossing each other up and down. Again the chief theme appears (206) in the bassoon in minor key, answered (210) by the basses in semi-humorous style. The final measures are characteristic of Beethoven's methods—two chords played softly, and immediately followed by the initial motif of the movement with loud brusqueness and abruptness.

One other passage deserves mention and we shall quote from Grove's "Beethoven and His Nine Symphonies" in regard to it. Grove has been commenting on the passage between (125) and (148); he continues as follows:

This leads into a repetition in the key of C major (148-158), very loud and martial in tone; and this again into a second and still droller passage; then the last quotation, where the flow of the melody is stopped for eight bars to introduce a passage of mere pleasantry or, as it probably seemed in 1808, of mere caprice, though now essential to our pleasure.

For special identification the passage is reproduced here; it will be found between measures (158) and (169) of the score.

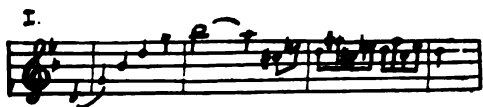


The foregoing allusions to the treatment Beethoven gives his themes are inserted here as a means of study, the end, or purpose of which is an appreciation on the part of the student of the significance of this movement. What that significance is the writer does not attempt to say because he believes it impossible to express it in language. The music is none the less stimulating on that account; its significance does not depend on our being able to state it. "Music excites emotions without incarnating them;" that is, the world of feeling proclaims itself in music without permitting us to classify it definitely. How great a part of thought feeling is, Herbert Spencer testifies in his Autobiography: "At any rate one significant truth has been made clear—that in the genesis of a system of thought the emotional nature is a large factor; perhaps as large a factor as the intellectual nature." So here, in this Fifth Symphony, we have an expression of the emotional nature of man such as no other art could give us; we *feel* these strains to be noble and true, and that they never touch upon anything trivial or base; we are uplifted by them; we reach through them a plane of feeling where our hearts become, for a moment, purified and cleansed.

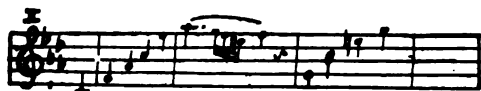
The third movement of this symphony, marked Allegro, is, in effect, a Scherzo. The word is an Italian one meaning a jest, and the form of the Scherzo is the same as that of the Minuet or March, *i. e.* the simple three part form (A. B. A.) already referred to in former articles. It differs from "Sonata Form" in that

the central section, B, contains one distinct theme (as does the first) instead of being a development of the material contained in the first section. The central section here begins at (142) and is not named "Trio" as usual—although it is, in effect, a Trio.

The beginning of this movement is extraordinary in its effect on the listener. The theme is first given out with extreme softness by the strings, reinforced by the horns, bassoons and clarinets. A second strain enters (20) of which much use is made in this movement and in the last. This first strain (1-19) begins a somewhat trite succession of notes, but the issue of it is entirely original. Two other themes may be quoted here to illustrate this: the first is from the last movement of Mozart's G minor Symphony and runs:



The second is from the first movement of the First Pianoforte Sonata of Beethoven:



The Scherzo theme from the Fifth Symphony is here quoted, also, in order to furnish an immediate opportunity for comparison:



The similarity between these three excerpts will be obvious to the student upon playing them; yet each has a distinct physiognomy of its own. The Mozart quotation is the least highly organized, the last phrase being a detached unit. It should be noted that common musical ideas become the property of each composer who uses them in a new way, and that no thought of plagiarism enters into this comparison.

All through the first strain (1-19) of this Scherzo theme there runs an air of mystery, indefinable but potent. The second section of the melody enters at (20), and, after it has been duly announced, and presented in various lights, the first section returns (53). New parts (counterpoints) appear, as at (117), so that the whole first part of the movement becomes quite extended and amplified before the Trio is reached.

The Trio theme (142) is treated in \*counterpoint, being taken up in turn by the basses, bassoons, second and first violins. A peculiarly comic effect is produced at (164) by the false start of the basses whose rapid, but somewhat indistinct low notes, have all the effect of incongruity commonly associated with humor.

In the repetition of the first part of the Scherzo a new treatment is given to the theme; changes in phrasing, in orchestration, etc., should be noted by the student. An entirely new counterpoint melody emerges at (300) and the long passage in which the drum ceaselessly sounds, (326-375) while motifs from the first theme hover over it, gives to this remarkable movement its fitting apotheosis.

The last movement succeeds the Scherzo without pause. In essence this final part is a triumphal pæan of joy, as if to celebrate the freedom of the spirit from the bonds of pain. After the tragedy of the first movement, the solemn and tender feeling of the Andante, and the mystery of

\*See the October CHAUTAUQUAN, pages 143-144.

the Scherzo, this dispels the clouds and rises above the misfortunes and tragedies of life. It is in C major, the most suitable key for the expression of such feelings, and the whole orchestra, including (for the first time) the trombones, is employed at the very outset of the movement. The various themes enter as follows:

Theme I, (1-24); Secondary theme, (26-43), secondary theme, (44-57), (these two secondary themes are episodes); Theme II, (64-77); Coda, (78-86); "Free Fantasia," or "Development Section," (87-154); introduction of Scherzo theme (162); Restatement of first part (209), with two secondary (episode) themes as before, and Theme II; Coda (296-446).

Before closing our study of this great work one important point deserves consideration. At a time when men were employed in pulling down their political house around them; when iconoclastic ideas were in vogue; when thrones were tottering and the deep, menacing murmur of the voices of the oppressed was beginning to be heard all over Europe; at a period that had produced Rousseau with his destructive socialism finding expression of such violent words as these: "All the evils which inflict humanity arise from vicious artificial arrangements such as the church and the state;" during this period,— Europe swept by Napoleon

—men's hands at each other's throats—we find the greatest composer of his time writing music whose essence is constructive. There is not a single composition of Beethoven that does violence to old principles of art; he advances nothing new save what grows out of the old by a natural sequence. He is not a Rousseau; his message is one of freedom, but not of license; he proclaims only the emancipation of man's soul and intellect; his is the voice of reason; he speaks the truth wisely and fearlessly, and, in the last analysis, will be found to be the one great prophet of his time who, unmoved by the clamor of the world for a political freedom it was not capable of using, speaks for that higher freedom, the freedom of the intelligence.

#### REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What advance is made in the content, or significance, of Beethoven's Fifth Symphony over that of Mozart's Sonatas and Symphonies? 2. What advance in structure is to be found in the Fifth Symphony? 3. How does the Scherzo differ from a corresponding movement from Haydn or Mozart? 4. What material is used in the "Free Fantasia" of the last movement of the Fifth Symphony? (State in detail and by numbered measures).

#### BIBLIOGRAPHY

See list following first Beethoven article in the January CHAUTAUQUAN.

*End of March Required Reading for Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, Pages 511 to 545.*



# The Significance of Erckmann-Chatrian\*

By Richard Burton

THE literary collaboration of the French writers Erckmann-Chatrian is almost as famous as that of the dramatists Beaumont and Fletcher in Elizabethan days. It offers the most remarkable modern example of two authors hiding their individual personalities in a oneness of aim and style such that for many years the critics puzzled themselves over the parts played by each in their books—and finally gave up the riddle. The literary partnership of the brothers Goncourt, also noted in later day French literature, was far less influential and successful in the popular sense. Erckmann-Chatrian, in their dual yet united work, justly won the epithet of the Siamese Twins of letters.

These noted novelists, in such idyllic tales as the familiar "L'Ami Fritz," a little masterpiece of sentiment and humor, set in the pastoral Alsatian background so well beloved by the authors, first gained a wide public attention, and it is still that aspect of their fiction, perhaps, which is best cherished by the world. But the powerful series of war stories—national novels, as they called them—with which they followed up the early success, have a deeper value and may well be emphasized in our day, because they have dropped out of notice comparatively and yet have a special bearing upon our early twentieth century social ideals. Newer literary schools and the tendency to bear down upon literary technic for its own sake explain this passing of the vogue of writers who loomed up so large a generation ago.

[\*This sketch is of special interest to Chautauquans because it deals with the authors of the historical novel, "The States General," which is included in the current Social Progress Year of the Chautauqua Home Reading Course. It shows the larger significance of that thrilling story as related to the anti-war purpose underlying their voluminous works. They were far in advance of their own day; renewed attention to them is particularly appropriate in connection with the establishment of a new Chautauqua Memorial Day, to be called International Peace Day, announced elsewhere in his issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.—EDITOR.]

For significant Erckmann-Chatrian certainly are, both for life and literature; their sociological value might fairly be described as unique and it is my purpose to bring out the point in this brief sketch.

These fraternal writers, who, late in their career, after a lifetime of closest union, literary and social, separated because of an unfortunate quarrel founded on divergent sympathies in the Franco-Prussian struggle, wrote a score of novels for the express purpose of exhibiting the horrors of war—not war the spectacle, war of the drums and the flags, but war of the winter camp, the besieged city, the blood-red battlefield, of the decimated homes and the staggering burden of national debt and increased taxation. After winning their spurs by books of fantasy and romance, like "Dr. Mattheus," or prose poems like "Friend Fritz," they turned to grimmer themes, used larger canvasses, and adopted a caustic realism of manner in a cause which lay near to their hearts—national history. In "Madam Therese," "The Invasion," "A Conscript of 1813," and its sequel, "Waterloo," in "The Blockade," "The Story of a Man of the People," and "The Story of a Peasant"—to mention but a few of the typical novels—they delighted a very large following by war studies in which the human sympathy was rich and warm, and only after many years did an effect of repetition and mechanism come into their work to impair its quality and dim its vogue.

Being, above all, born story tellers, the tales had the artistic touch, the vivid portraiture and picturesque power that pleased, that meant literature; and more important still was the underlying sincerity and emotional strength which made Erckmann-Chatrian favorites of the plain people everywhere. The very un-Parisian quality of this fiction, so unlike the tainted wares served up on the boulevards, helped

its popularity; the authors were, and remained, men of the border country of Alsace and Lorraine; in truth, Erckmann (as his name shows), had German blood in him, and the homely provincial flavor, the delightful bourgeois air, was never absent from their work, and hence its appeal to a time when democracy grew apace and the bourgeoisie were coming into their own.

But the moral intention was there, under whatever charm of story telling, all the better because not didactically conveyed, but with the movement, color and life-zest which fiction should possess: one feels the strong love of country, the stern judging of national figures like Napoleon the Big and Napoleon the Little by their real contributions to the welfare of the French folk, rather than by their skill in handling men or weapons, their ability to pose picturesquely on horseback. The point of view is steadily that of the common soldier; he is not sentimentalized at all; he is drawn with a realism calculated to delight the later Zola; but the bubble of national glory is pricked to utter collapse just because it is seen through the shrewd sad eyes of him of the ranks—the Gallic Tommy Atkins, whether on the tented field or in the humble home where, wounded, he slowly regains strength enough to grapple with the almost hopeless industrial struggle—the legacy of the war.

Of course, there is a bias in these books, a French special pleading throughout the series; the Prussians are pigs, the Germans, in general, devils on the loose; but one cannot ask Erckmann-Chatrian to be more than human: for the most part, their preferences are sane and noble; nor does their partisanship at all affect the main teaching: to breed a disgust for war, as such; certainly for most wars of French history. The Napoleonic idol is always attacked, the difference between a war for the selfish aggrandizement of a leader, for the display of personal ambition or to replenish an impoverished

treasury, and the war which means the advance of human liberty and the defense of necessary rights, is a keynote of these volumes.

In these days of International Peace Congresses and Hague Tribunals, it seems as if a revival of these French authors would be well, since uniquely in French literature, yes, in modern literature (for theirs is a series, while a man like Tolstoy writes but one "War and Peace") do they express a representative mood and belief of our later period—teaching in the terms of romance the doctrine of the laying down of arms advocated nowadays by a Bloch for purely business reasons, and a Mead for reasons ethical. Often were Erckmann-Chatrian attacked in their heyday by the advocates of militarism (whose later representatives rallied for the fierce fight against Dreyfus), but with courage and constancy they cried up peace, liberty and toil as the basis of any fruitful national progress. In reply to a critic who in 1866 charged them with pernicious teaching they wrote: "We have always been faithful to the democratic modern sentiment which rejects war as a means of progress and which regards it as only necessary in the case of legitimate defense." Leaders of thought at present are heard to speak words which are but the echo of such a resonant declaration of principles dating forty years back. Such men, such thinkers, such patriots, are far more than a pair of entertaining novelists of the middle nineteenth century.

Said M. Charles Wagner to me, in substance, during his recent lecture tour in the United States, when I chanced to mention the work of these writers: Ah, yes, that is one of the things I wish to do: reconcile the French and German peoples—the blood of both is in my veins; to see the University of Strassburg not alone a place of learning but a fraternal meeting place of two great nations where the swords may be beaten into plowshares, and an example of the larger, the universal peace, be given to the world.

# The Significance of Europe

## *Civic Lessons From* *German Municipal Social Service* By Howard Woodhead

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THOSE who have studied municipal activities in Germany have, doubtless, been struck first of all by the great number of functions assumed by the municipal governments. Probably there are several reasons for this. In some cases keen business insight on the part of the municipal officials seems to have instigated the undertaking of business functions by the municipality. It must be understood, too, that private capital is not so enterprising in Germany as elsewhere. It is, indeed, very backward unless the investment promises sure returns—preferably with the assurance vouchsafed by governmental backing. The newer public services have, in many cases, been instituted by non-German capitalists; but, for various reasons, the municipalities have been convinced of the advantages of municipalizing some activities and of inaugurating others. The field of municipal activities in Germany is, then, greater than in many other countries, largely because conditions there are not the same as elsewhere.

The objection is raised, and rightly, that municipal government in Germany is not generally democratic in form, for the Prussian three-class system is the prevalent type. This gives the control to the wealthier classes; but it must be said that the ruling classes feel their responsibility keenly. They believe that they know, or can find out, what the people need, and they seek to provide them with it. Our

more democratic plan is to educate the people until they want the things they need and then provide them for themselves. Our plan is psychologically and ethically better. The results may be slower in coming but they are thorough and well grounded and sincere, and there is absolutely no opportunity for crying "paternalism."

### THE MUNICIPAL COUNCIL

Without discussing this question further, however, let us see what the German system of municipal government involves. The voter has not time personally to settle all problems, to look into the technicalities of all propositions offered, to consider the qualifications of the specialists who attend to the business of the municipality. He centers his whole attention upon the selection of a good municipal council. He elects to this body men whom he considers honest and capable, and to them he delegates his further powers. The council has full powers, but is, on the other hand, directly responsible to the voting public in case of shortcomings. This assures an efficient and trustworthy organization which accomplishes the purposes for which it exists, and whose members rely upon work well done rather than upon political influence for continuance in office. The councilors are usually elected for six-year terms, with one-third of them elected every two years. This assures the stability of the council and permits a continuous policy.

This is the sixth of a series of nine articles on "Civic Lessons from Europe." A partial list is as follows:

Street Decoration, by Milo Roy Maltbie (September).

La Maison du Peuple, a Belgian Coöperative Business, by Mary Rankin Cranston (October).

Forestry in Germany, by Raphael G. Zon (November).

Coöperative Industries, by Mary Rankin Cranston (December).

Public Playgrounds, by H. S. Curtis (January).

German Municipal Social Service, by Howard Woodhead (February).

Workingmen's Insurance, by I. M. Rubinow (March).

Industrial Communities, by Patrick Geddes (April).

Democracy involves the fulfillment of the will of the people. Then it must be admitted that such an arrangement would, with a democratic system of voting instead of the three-class system, give us a more democratic government than does our present arrangement of political influence and divided responsibility of municipal officials.

The elected municipal council, then, is the central administrative body having full authority and being fully responsible. It chooses the burgomaster and selects his expert associates, the magistrates. Councilors receive no pay, and yet are required to serve if elected. Men are glad to serve, however, because of the honor and social position which membership in the council insures. Men representing various branches of expert knowledge, merchants, and professional men are to be found among the councilors.

#### THE PROFESSION OF MAYOR

The burgomaster, or mayor, fits himself for the profession of governing municipalities. After studying administrative law and taking his degree at some university, he seeks experience as a magistrate or as the burgomaster of some small municipality. The professional civil service is extremely well developed in Germany; and a burgomaster is sure of his position for a long term of years, often for life, unless, indeed, he should forfeit it through misconduct. Under these conditions the municipality secures honest and efficient government; for the burgomaster is not likely to do anything which will lower him in the estimation of his employers, the council, and the council will keep a close watch on him because it is responsible to the voters for the good conduct of the government in all its branches. The council can restrict or aid the mayor and can deal with him more promptly and effectively than can the whole body of voters. Herein lies one of the advantages of delegating powers to an all-powerful council instead of eliminating the council and giving full authority

directly to the mayor. The burgomaster is aware, moreover, that other municipal councils are watching his progress and that success in his city is likely to be rewarded by a call to a larger city.

#### SALARIED AND UNSALARIED MAGISTRATES

The magistrates, too, are highly trained experts. Among them are specialists in law, finance, engineering, architecture, charity administration, and men with technical and business qualifications. They have permanent tenure of office under civil service regulations, for the same term as that of the burgomaster with whom they are associated.

The word "officialism" brings strange fancies to our minds, and calls up the many drawbacks attendant upon highly developed officialism. And yet it must be apparent that there are also great advantages in the German municipal civil service. Possibly we shall some day develop, not a copy of German officialism, but a genuine, American, democratic, municipal civil service, without the disadvantages that are so distasteful to us.

The magisterial body is equally divided between salaried, professional specialists and unpaid, non-professional citizens. The unpaid magistrates are also men with training and experience.

They have in most cases served efficiently as members of the elected municipal council, and are citizens with sufficient leisure and means to devote their time to the service of the city, from the motive of public spirit mingled with that of satisfaction in the honor of high position. . . . It is important to bear in mind that the distinguished citizens appointed as unpaid magistrates must serve for at least half their six-year term, or else suffer serious pains, penalties, and disabilities.\*

Under the mayor and magistrates are the numerous officials, of all grades and ranks, who constitute the membership of the municipal civil service, and who are trained men in their respective departments.\*\*

\*Albert Shaw, "Municipal Government in Continental Europe," p. 317.

\*\*Albert Shaw, "Municipal Government in Continental Europe," p. 320.



Many citizens assist both the elected municipal council and the magisterial council without remuneration. The executive work is done by the councils but the non-official citizens act as advisors and assistants. It has been said that this gives a good working combination of bureaucracy and democracy. Associated with the elected municipal council is a large body of "citizen deputies." They have no vote in the council but are advisory members, and serve on committees in charge of parks, schools, charities, and so forth. Besides these there is an army of citizens who assist the magistrates as members of various sub-committees. The service is purely honorary but by no means merely nominal. A very considerable part of the work for schools and for charities is done by these non-official citizens. The honor of being selected to serve the municipality in this capacity is very great, and service on such a committee is considered as merely fulfilling a requirement of citizenship. Lest the citizen should falter in the discharge of his sacred duty toward his fellow-citizens, however, there is a penalty for refusal to serve, consisting of an increase of taxes and, in special cases, of a suspension of civil rights.

Such, then, is the organization with which the German municipalities have accomplished their financial and social achievements, *viz.*, the exact, scientific administration of the professional civil service officials, counterbalanced by the obligatory and unpaid social service of private citizens of means and capability.

#### BUSINESS METHODS IN ADMINISTRATION

It is as important for the municipality to conduct its affairs according to strict business principles as it is for a private corporation to do so. This fact is not appreciated to any great extent in this country, but it is fundamental in Germany. Breslau has a centralized finance department which has charge of receipts and disbursements for charities and hos-

pitals, education, health and safety, municipal land-holdings, taxes, and general administration, and for the institutions under the control of the municipality. The offices of the gasworks, waterworks, electrical works, stock-yards, slaughterhouses, harbors, and street railways—all of which are municipalized in Breslau—are affiliated with the main office and turn in their surplus or apply for a sufficient sum to cover their deficit, as the case may be. The latter contingency is rare, however, for each department is expected to yield a revenue, or at least be self-maintaining. The cashiers, clerks, bookkeepers, are all accountable to the comptroller who, in turn, is responsible to the council which appointed him. The day books are balanced every night. The books are closed the tenth of each month and audited a week later by a deputed committee of councilors and magistrates. Accounts, chosen at random by members of the auditing committee, are inspected; the contents of certain money bags, also chosen at random, are counted; stocks and bonds are examined; and the cashiers take their oath as to the correctness of their accounts and balances. This takes place each month, and besides this there is, at least once a year, a special unexpected auditing to make sure that at any moment the balance on the books agrees with the cash on hand.

#### DRESDEN MUNICIPAL EXPOSITION—CHICAGO MUNICIPAL MUSEUM

For a comparative study of methods, and for the sake of showing each other their achievements in business undertakings and in social service, the German municipalities held a Municipal Exposition in Dresden in the summer of 1903.\* Some attempt was made at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis last year, to present an international municipal exhibit. This attempt failed largely of

\*See articles by Howard Woodhead in *The American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. IX, Nos. 4, 5, 6; and Vol. X, No. 1. (January, March, May, July, 1904).

its purpose, however, because the exhibits were so scattered. A Municipal Museum has been founded in Chicago, which is to combine the international features of the St. Louis exhibit with the thoroughness and excellence of the Dresden Exposition. Coming later, it will have the advantage of a study of the accomplishments of the Dresden Exposition, and also be able to avoid its shortcomings. The majority of the exhibits from St. Louis have been secured, and an active campaign is to be inaugurated for securing exhibits from American and foreign municipalities showing their most noteworthy achievements. The Museum will doubtless be of especial importance to American municipalities, all of which are invited to make exhibits of the fields wherein they excel. In some cases these will be their most recent undertakings, in others, older results which in spite of lack of novelty are still the best of their kind. The Museum will thus be a clearing-house for results in all municipal departments. The data presented at the Municipal Museum will be more up to date and more comprehensive than can be found collected anywhere else. Plans, drawings, charts, photographs, statistical data, and models will present conditions most fully, and in a form that will be readily apprehended. Moreover the data from various similar undertakings will be side by side and may thus be easily compared. Besides this, the Municipal Museum of Chicago will attempt, especially, to interpret the exhibits so that all may understand them; for even the specialist will desire an explanation of the technique of departments in which he has not specialized.

#### "MUNICIPAL SOCIALISM"

It is perhaps worth noting that what is sometimes called "municipal socialism," that is, the assumption of business functions by the government, has advanced farther in Germany than elsewhere; notwithstanding the fact that the municipal government is practically controlled by the wealthier classes and is ad-

ministered by technically trained officials. These business functions are not, then, undertaken because of any socialistic propaganda, but because experience has shown that such undertakings were for the social or financial advantage of the community and therefore expedient. The only question is, as to whether the proposed action will promote the general welfare of the community. The answer may be sanctioned by socialistic theory or it may not. Whichever it is, the measure is carried through if declared beneficial; and this without implying either approbation or condemnation of socialism.

#### OVERSIGHT AND FORESIGHT

Because of their excellent administrative organization and because of the efficient technical skill which is at their disposal, the German municipalities can give thorough study to any project; and when it is sanctioned, can carry it through with careful attention to all details.

Nothing is hurried, yet nothing seems to lag when once begun. Street-systems are rectified; new suburbs are judiciously laid out; here a new water-supply, introduced from high sources, employs engineers, architects, and conduit-builders. In another city new sewers are in progress, on a plan for the complete and final drainage of the place. River frontages are undergoing magnificent improvement, for purposes of water traffic. Gas-works, electric-plants, market-houses, public abattoirs, school buildings, epidemic hospitals, bridges, wharves, subways, or whatever else the expanding requirements of the municipality may ordain,—all are in course of construction by methods that insure the highest utility and greatest permanence.\*

But a deep responsibility for the welfare of the municipal household means something very different from the successful conduct of these specific business undertakings. This assumption, or their relegation to private hands, involves little more than a decision from time to time as to what is opportune and what is inopportune. It is conceivable that the German city might do none of these things, and that the American city might plunge into them all, and yet that the German

\*Albert Shaw, "Continental Europe," p. 333.

city should remain a far more positive and essential factor in the life of its citizens. For the German city would hold fast to its conception of the municipal household, and would yield nothing of its solicitous oversight and its inclusive responsibility. The German city holds itself responsible for the education of all; for the provision of amusement and the means of recreation; for the adaptation of the training of the young to the necessities of gaining a livelihood; for the health of families; for the moral interests of all; for the civilizing of the people; for the promotion of individual thrift; for protection from various misfortunes; for the development of advantages and opportunities in order to promote the industrial and commercial well-being and incidentally for the supply of common services and the introduction of conveniences.\*

The rate of growth of German cities since 1870 has been remarkable. The razing of the town walls, which formerly cramped and crowded the growing population, led to an exodus to the suburbs. Concomitant with this movement toward the suburbs, was a marked development in the means of transit. This suburban tendency has practically existed during the past thirty years, only; and the last decade, which marks the most noticeable movement, is also the period of the greatest development of transit facilities. The municipalities, realizing the close connection existing between the city and the suburbs, have annexed the suburban territory which showed signs of growth; or when this was impossible have acted in conjunction with the officials of the suburbs. The control thus gained enables the municipality to lay out the new quarters on scientific principles according to a unified plan, and thus promote the organic growth of the city.† Moreover, it can control from the beginning, the extension of sewerage systems, water supply, gas and electric systems, transit systems, and the location of parks and play-

grounds. Foresight and oversight thus secure proper conditions for the future growth of what are destined to become important population centers.

It may be interesting to some to contrast with this, the *laissez faire* policy of our municipalities, the rapidity of whose growth has hardly more than matched that of the German cities. A remark in extenuation of our own condition is in place here. The larger German cities are composed almost entirely of tenement rows and apartment buildings, not of detached houses with gardens. Consequently the territory to be served is far less than that of our cities. The expenses are not so great for public service systems, including paving, repairing, draining, cleaning, sprinkling, and lighting of the streets; for sanitary, police, and fire systems; for inspection of building construction, of housing and sanitation, and so on. If detached buildings for single families covering only a part of the building lot, are erected, the cost per building for the services mentioned is increased. When all these conditions are taken into account it will be seen that the compactly built cities have a decided advantage. We must grant, however, that the German municipality has recognized the problems involved and has set about solving them, whereas we are hardly conscious that such problems exist or that they could be dealt with if they should be found.

#### MUNICIPAL HOUSING

The Germans have taken up the housing question in the same spirit as that which prompts keeping an oversight of the production and preparation of food, clothing, and other necessities. They hold it a social duty to furnish cheap, sanitary homes for the poor when private enterprise fails to do so. It is a question of vital importance to the whole social body because the filth and squalor of crumbling, poorly lighted, and otherwise unsanitary houses endangers the health and safety not only of their own un-

\*Albert Shaw, "Continental Europe," p. 329.

†See also, *The American Journal of Sociology*, January, 1904, pp. 440, 443; and July, 1904, p. 55 and following.

fortunate inmates but of the community at large, not only of the present generation but of succeeding generations. To buy up an especially undesirable slum district, raze the buildings, re-divide the land, laying new streets through, or widening the old ones, and to erect new buildings with proper lighting, ventilation, and plumbing, is an undertaking which should receive the closest supervision of municipal experts. Where such operations cannot be accomplished save at great expense with no hope of substantial returns for a long time, the community cannot always afford to wait for private enterprise to initiate them. Here, again, we see the effect of the German conception of the responsibility of the municipality for the welfare of all of its citizens—a point upon which Dr. Albert Shaw lays great stress.

Ulm, a city in southern Germany of less than 50,000 inhabitants, has outstripped all Germany in her audacious treatment of the housing problem.\* She has not taken up the question because there was a crying need for dwellings, but in order to furnish to citizens of small means, improved conditions and decreased rent. In 1888 she began erecting model tenements. In the following eight years she had erected 23 buildings containing two and three room apartments for ninety-nine families (456 persons). The condition of these dwellings was far in advance of that of workingmen's dwellings formerly; but the housing of so many people together left much to be desired. As a consequence the municipal officials began to study the question as to whether or not the community might build houses to sell to workingmen; for they had decided, after investigation, that the conditions for family life, for cleanliness and order, for economy, and for morality were far better where the people had a feeling of personal possession than where they rented. The decision was finally made to build story-and-a-half

cottages, the half story to be sublet if the tenant desired. Of the 232 cottages built thus far, 121 have two rooms and kitchen and 111 have three rooms and kitchen. Although it is in many cases desirable to have three rooms, especially where there are grown children, there is the danger of the third room's being rented to lodgers. Consequently the dwelling with three rooms and kitchen is to be recommended only when it is possible to enforce strictly the prohibition of room renting. Otherwise it is purposeless to provide such homes. As the needs of traffic are not great, streets and sidewalks were made as narrow as possible to leave room for front gardens upon which the street may encroach if, in time, necessity demands. The price at which the municipality may buy back the front gardens is arranged at the time of the sale. This farsightedness decreases the cost of street-cleaning and repairs and gives the people the benefit of the gardens until the streets need to be widened. A municipal playground was located in the neighborhood at the beginning. Ulm lays especial stress upon the value of the gardens connected with these houses. Various vegetables, berry bushes, and trees are planted in them, and nearly every garden has its summer house which, in warm weather, serves as the meeting place of the family.

The monthly payments are not greater than tenants would have to pay as rent for tenement dwellings in the city, and give full possession in twenty-three years. The right of transfer of the property is limited by the municipality in order to exclude speculation. The authorities take care: that the cottages shall be sold only to people of small means; that large families be given a preference; that repossession under certain circumstances be secured to the municipality; that the rent of the half-story if sublet shall not be raised; that the property shall not deteriorate through damage or neglect. Many regulations are necessary to pre-

\*See also, *The American Journal of Sociology*, March, 1904, pp. 612 and following.

vent small trades (cobbling, etc.) being carried on in the houses, to prevent the overcrowding of the houses with lodgers and the increasing of the rent of the half-story, since these conditions all work directly against the intentions of the municipal authorities in providing the houses.

The Ulm authorities are convinced that the solution of the housing question in Germany lies with the community, and that individual ownership of the houses by the workmen themselves furnishes the best key to the solution.\* In this country where such conditions, furnished by private enterprise, are common enough, the full force of Ulm's activity may not be appreciated at once. But when one knows how extremely few people in Germany own their own homes and how very few, even of the richest, have houses and gardens to themselves,\*\* it will be seen that Ulm has taken a great forward step.

#### MUNICIPAL RENTING AGENCY

Since 1902 Stuttgart has had a municipal renting agency whose services are free. In order to obtain the full benefit, registration is compulsory. Every landlord with houses or apartments to rent is required to register, within eight days of the time they are to be ready for occupation, at the "house department" on cards supplied. When the dwelling is rented he must make notification thereof within three days. The registration cards are filed in a card catalogue showing at a glance all necessary information: number of rooms, address, floor, front or rear, with or without a shop, yearly rent including shop, if any, and when ready for occupant. The cards differ in size and color for one-room, two-room, three-room dwellings, etc., with or without shop, etc. Besides the cards, the landlord fills out a formula which is filed by the

\*See Oberbürgermeister Wagner, "Die Tätigkeit der Stadt Ulm auf dem Gebiete der Wohnungsfürsorge für Arbeiter und Bedienstete.—Häuser zum Eigenwerb."

\*\*See Albert Shaw, "Continental Europe," pp. 312, 360, and others.

*Wohnungsamt* in a loose-leaf register for reference. This gives details as to rent and what is included, together with what is permitted, for example, subletting, plying a trade in the house, etc. It is thus a sort of contract officially sanctioned and readily accessible to both parties.

In immediate connection with this department is the "dwelling inspection department." The facts on the cards sent in to the renting agency are immediately to be verified by inspection, and checked up when necessary by reference to the rules of the health department and of the building department. The direction of the work is centralized; but the actual inspection is individualized, each inspector having his particular district for which he is held responsible. All the poorer dwellings are inspected at least once a year and the more dubious ones much oftener. The department has gained the confidence and good will of both tenants and landlords. The results accomplished by the department are pronounced quite satisfactory.

#### MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS

Intelligence offices operated for gain have for a long time been considered disadvantageous. The temptation to "make new places" and so promote business is often too great to be resisted. The community is deeply interested, for it is to its advantage that its employers should have workmen, and that its workmen should have work to do. Rather than have such burdens as poor-tax, beggary, and theft, certain cities would substitute municipal employment agencies. Hamburg has had such an agency since 1898, connected with its charity bureau. Breslau has had an employment bureau since 1896. Dortmund founded a municipal employment agency in 1897, which is operated at the expense of the city. Its services are free, and the management is directed to cooperate with the other employment agencies in the city. Unless the other bureaus answer to a need of the city they will prob-

ably be crowded out by the competition of the free service offered by the municipality. In any case Dortmund is assured of an excellent, centralized, complete, disinterested, free employment agency.

#### MUNICIPAL SAVINGS BANKS AND PAWN SHOPS

Savings banks are conducted by most of the larger municipalities for the benefit of the poorer classes. Very small sums are accepted, and a fair rate of interest is paid. The banks are administered with the strictest economy, and are not expected to be more than self-sustaining. Some of them name a maximum sum which may be withdrawn within a given period; this protects the banks, and also leads to continued saving, as the money cannot all be withdrawn at once.

The pawn shops conducted by the municipalities are a great boon to the poor. They are numerous and well located, and are thoroughly honorable and reliable. The statistics of Frankfort, to take an example, show some interesting facts. Toward the end of the year clothes are regularly redeemed because of the need for holiday clothes and winter clothing, and because the Christmas presents bring an increase of available money. Just before the chief holidays there is a marked increase of pledges redeemed. There is a regular excess of pledges at the first of the week and of redemption thereof at the end of the week. It is evident from these facts that the municipal pawn shop is the wardrobe where the poor keep their best clothes.

#### MUNICIPAL CHARITY BUREAUS

The organization of the municipal charity bureau provides centralization and unified authority and supervision, but decentralized, individualized investigation and administration of aid. The former effects a unification of private charities—of societies, institutions, churches—with public ones. Repetition of requests for aid and other such impositions are thus minimized. The individualization is ac-

complished by means of local committees of citizens, serving without remuneration, each personally responsible for a certain number of families or tenements, which he comes to know thoroughly. Personal investigation, immediate relief in cases of pressing need, and personal care and oversight of all who receive aid, whether temporarily or regularly, are some of the advantages achieved through these unpaid committees.

The German policy is to help those in need at the time when there is still a chance for putting them on their feet again, rather than to wait until they may become public charges in institutions. There is often temporary need, and fuel, food, clothing, even money, are furnished. Even when this need is chronic the authorities consider regular assistance better than commission to institutions. The person is to be helped to help himself. In Dresden, for example, rents are high and still going up; sometimes some people must be aided in meeting this rise—occasionally only now and then, and again every month. In these cases the rent, or portion thereof, is paid, not to the applicant for assistance, but to the landlord. Some are able to support themselves except for the added expense for heating which the cold of winter necessitates. These receive regular aid. The debts brought on by long periods of illness are avoided by means of the compulsory insurance against sickness.

#### TRADE SCHOOLS IN CITIES

The German *Gymnasium* has long been considered a model for classical schools everywhere; but the modern tendency to regard the non-classical school, with its more practical preparation and with the greater opportunity for selecting a career which is offered to its students, as less one-sided and quite as educational, is slowly but surely making headway in Germany as elsewhere. The tendency toward modernization of education is, however, even more noticeable in the ele-

mentary schools. Workshops for manual training are provided in almost every new school building erected. In Strassburg the boys are trained for particular trades instead of taking general work, as is usual. Besides this regular school work there are classes held evenings and Sundays for those who wish to continue their studies after having left the schools to go to work. Some of these classes include instruction in particular trades. Dresden has such classes in two divisions: those who use drawing, as locksmiths, blacksmiths, mechanics, joiners, carpenters, masons, decorators, china painters (commercial), architects, and lithographers; and those who do not use drawing, as salesmen, clerks, waiters, etc. Berlin has classes for tailors, bookbinders, weavers, carpenters, and builders, among others. Some municipalities, as Aix-la-Chapelle, Dresden, and Munich, have trade schools which are more thorough than the continuation school just mentioned. Dresden has day classes, and evening and Sunday classes. The former are for those who wish to continue their studies and at the same time obtain the technical knowledge and preparation necessary for their trade. They are arranged in three divisions. The first—bakers, butchers, waiters and cooks—have two semesters of thirty-four hours' work a week. The masons, carpenters, joiners, and tinnern have three semesters of thirty-six hours a week. The locksmiths, mechanics, machinists, and electricians have thirty-seven hours a week for two semesters. The evening and Sunday classes offer to apprentices, employees, and employers (of one or two men) opportunities for the instruction necessary for the pursuit of their various trades along the most modern lines. Schools of engineering are to be found in Barmen, Breslau, Dortmund, Duisburg, Erfurt, Hildesheim, and Münster; and a school of textile industries in Cottbus. Mittweida has a *Technicum* where a factory is run in connection with the technical

school for teaching technology and giving practical experience at the same time. The students work beside skilled workmen. Some factories are unwilling to take students, others charge for the instruction they furnish, and at best the student must devote himself to some special form of work, thereby missing one of the greatest advantages of the Mittweida factory, *viz.*, a general view of the field.

#### MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP OF LAND

Many German municipalities own larger or smaller tracts of land. This is often outside the city limits, but is sometimes within them. There are five municipalities which own something like one-half of the land within their city limits; and eight others own nearly twenty-five per cent. Land within the city limits serves as sites for municipal buildings: city hall, schools, gas-works, markets, etc., as well as for streets, squares, parks, and playgrounds. Frankfort owns over half the territory enclosed by her city limits. The land is not in large tracts, but is in comparatively small tracts scattered well over the city. The municipality thus has land for its schools and parks at any time without paying exorbitant prices, and receives a revenue from such lands as it does not have immediate need for. The gain herein is for the future as well as for the present. Essen is buying land, and Düsseldorf has devoted the sum of five million marks to the purchase of land for the municipality.

#### EXPEDIENCY VS. THEORY

Such, then, are some of the points which may be considered under the heading "municipal social service." Many people are a little bit afraid that social service may mean socialism or, at least, may lead to it, and so I may say here that socialism is not by any means implied in these activities. When questions such as these we have been observing, present themselves to us for solution, let us study them carefully and fearlessly and

*do the thing which ought to be done.* If the municipality can do it best, let the municipality undertake it; otherwise not. It is a question of expediency not of general doctrine.

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Godkin: "Problems of Municipal Government," in *The Annals of the American Academy*, Vol. IV, pp. 857 ff.

"A Municipal Program," drawn up by a committee of the National Municipal League.

[For supplementary material with special reference to municipal social service in the United States, see "Survey of Civic Betterment" in this issue of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.]

# Hope

By Austin Bierbower

He who hopes enjoys everything before he gets it, and if he never gets it, has at least one enjoyment. Most things are better when expected than when attained, so that the hopeful man has the best. He is sure of one thing at least, and of a good thing. While realization may disappoint, hope never does; since we can hope; for as good as we want. We expect only the best, anticipating mostly ideals. One generally hopes for something better than he gets, and, as long as he hopes for it, he is not wholly without it, but has it for most purposes. If he is disappointed later, it is only after he has enjoyed it as hoped for. While disappointment gives present pain, it cannot destroy past pleasure; so that hope secures the present while awaiting the future; and if the future that is hoped for never comes, we lose only by ending the present enjoyment, and we can always

begin a new hope, and so a new pleasure. Man is never so poor that he cannot hope, and never has so little that he cannot expect much.

He who hopes long is briefly disappointed. For the thing expected may be years in coming, but it is only a moment in failing. For disappointment soon wearies, and it dulls with time, while hope may last for life, and strengthen with delay. One never knows that he will be disappointed till he is; so that the pleasure of false hopes is long, and the pain short; and he who hopes has much, whether successful or not. Hope is a way of enjoying things which we have not—a means of making the poor rich and the low great—equalizing men by giving them like joys. As most thought is about the future, the hopeful man rescues much of life from misery, and is, for most of his time, on the side of the fortunate.



# How the American Boy Is Educated

## Aspects of the Elementary School

By Walter L. Hervey

Formerly President of Teacher's College; Member of the Board of Examiners,  
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**O**N what lines the more favored half (or whatever the fraction may be) of the sixteen millions of American school children are working during the seven or eight years of the Elementary School, is the theme of the present chapter.

By the "more favored" I mean those who enjoy the advantage of having an enriched curriculum, and teachers skilled in using efficient methods. We are justified in neglecting the less favored type, partly because it is already too familiar, and partly because it is passing away. The forces now at work for the complete modernization of the schools are so mighty that nothing can withstand them. What the best schools are today, the worst schools are on the road to becoming.

Two main aspects of the question will be considered: the ideas and plans of educators, and the activities in response thereto by those being educated.

At a recent meeting of supervisory officers of the Board of Education in the City of New York, one superintendent, a specialist in primary supervision, arose and spoke as follows:

Mr. Chairman, I suppose that during the past twenty-five years I have examined every primary class in the former city of New York, from the Battery to High Bridge. And I want to say to you that I have been simply astounded by the results

attained under the new course of study. The children learn more rapidly, they do more work, and they are happier in their work than under the old curriculum.

What was there about the new curriculum and the teaching of it that produced, or helped to produce, these results? More broadly and generally, what are the controlling ideas in the elementary school of today? It has already been noted in previous articles that there is increased attention to the physical environment and to bodily conditions, and that there is an attempt at securing a close correlation of each individual with his spiritual environment. It is with the further elucidation of this latter phase we are now to be occupied.

We have already seen that the macrocosm of the real world of human life must be brought, with no loss of reality and no loss of vital power, within the microcosm of the school; that each essential element, whether of reality or idealism, in that big world, must have a place in this little world; that the school therefore, shall not attempt to prepare for life by learning the rules of the game, merely, but shall actually prepare for life by playing the game itself. The most modern rendering of the old dictum, "We learn by doing," has become, "In school we learn how to live by actually living." In accordance with this new dictum, some

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This is the sixth of a series of nine articles on "How the American Boy Is Educated." In this series Mr. Hervey will undertake to give a picture of the various and contrasting conditions under which the American boy is being built into a man through education. The following articles have already appeared: Education and the American Boy, September; Home Education, October; Bodily Basis: Physician and Teacher, November; Schooling in Country and City, December; Changes in the Common School Curriculum, January.

useless and obstructive branches have been pruned, and more will follow them to the brush pile. It is not enough that a disputed branch point to leaves and fruit, as proof of its vitality. "Can you bear as richly as this newly grafted and sturdy shoot?" is the question by which every relic of antiquity must stand or burn. And by virtue of this same insight new branches have been added, and old ones renewed.

The general problem of the elementary school has sometimes been thus conceived: to give the child the instruments whereby he may gain knowledge, communicate with others, and prepare himself for more advanced studies. Now, if by "instruments" is meant merely the technical processes of reading, writing, ciphering, drawing, measuring, and the like, this conception is incomplete. The elementary school, as its name implies, has for its purpose the teaching of *elements*, the elements of the life of man and of the laws of nature. It therefore embraces the elementary interests and activities of humanity, the elementary forms of social organization and social service, and the elements of natural law, order and beauty. The task of the educationist is to analyze nature and human life, and to bring the child into vital and practical relationship with the elements of both. As the child's interest in these realities broadens and deepens, he finds that he must gain a practical command of the instruments of communication and of the symbols of knowledge. The Three R's are found to be not only interesting to a certain extent in themselves, but also to a far greater extent because they are the keys which will open the storehouse of knowledge, and the gateway to power. The greatest discovery in modern elementary education is the discovery of the true place of the Three R's in the school,—that they are not primary but secondary in time and in importance, that they are means to higher ends and not ends in themselves.

"The problem here is, then," to quote from Prof. Dewey whose contributions to the theory and practice of education are among the most valuable ever made, "(1) to furnish the child with a sufficiently large amount of personal activity, in occupations, expression, conversation, construction, and experimentation, so that his individuality, moral and intellectual, shall not be swamped by a disproportionate amount of the experience of others to which books introduce him; and (2) so to conduct this more direct experience as to make the child feel the need of resort to and command of the traditional social tools—furnish him with motives to make his recourse to them intelligent, an addition to his powers, instead of a servile dependency. When this problem shall be solved, work in language, literature, and number will not be a combination of mechanical drill, formal analysis, and appeal, even if unconscious, to sensational interests; and there will not be the slightest reason to fear that books and all that relates to them will not take the important place to which they are entitled."

In working out this problem, there are two lines which at first seem to have little to do with each other. There is, in the first place, *the present world* in which the child lives, and moves and, to a certain extent has his being,—the world of houses and streets; of artificial light and heat; of farmers and store keepers; of milk men and ice men; of the post-man, the path master, the policeman or the constable. This is the modern world of civilized life with its complex organization, its acute division of labor, its mechanism, its removal from simple relations and realities. It is often little understood how unintelligible and how tiresome to a child of six or eight years this modern world is. It is the business of the teacher to give him the clue to it. For unless he be given such a clue, he will develop, or more properly *case-harden*, into the incurious, unintelligent,

prejudiced, narrow, gullible "man on the street," knowing enough, and just enough to fill his narrow niche and earn a living thereby, but being in no sense a citizen of the world.

How the child is introduced to this present world is indicated by such paragraphs as these in a course of study: "games, stories and occupations based on the activities of the community, the home, the street, buildings; vegetable and fruit gardens; grocery stores, the ice industry, bakery, butcher shop, dairy store; home pets, excursions." The child is gradually led to see that his life is inextricably involved with the life of the community, and of each member therein,—that every single one of those about whom he studies is *working for him*. In due time he investigates processes, being charged with the task of finding out and reporting in class how a house is lighted, how the house is heated, where the grocer gets his several wares, etc.

Here is the result of a not entirely successful attempt to introduce a city child to one aspect of a farmer's life:

#### CORN

The corn ripens in October.

It is planted in the spring.

The men hoe the corn.

The blossom is in two parts.

We eat the grains of the corn.

The men cut the corn down, then they tie strings around it and carry it to the barn.

The following, by a city boy of twelve, gives a hint of a suggestive lesson:

#### THE TEAZEL

The teazel is a weed but it is very useful. It is used in the manufacture of cloth. Farmers do not care to raise them because the crop often fails, but if they grow he gets a good price for them.

[Drawing.]

When in the factory they are fastened to an axle and when the cloth passes they turn and raise the fibres. They cannot make artificial teazles because wire ones cannot spring back and bend and so tear the cloth.

In some schools children actually con-

struct a house from drawings to scale, on estimates of the quantity and cost of the lumber and other materials. They furnish the house, making many of the articles with their own hands. The problem of covering the walls and floors, of drapery and upholstery, of the choice and placing of furniture, of the color scheme, and of the cost, is carefully worked out in detail.

The key-note of all such work is *reality*. The children deal with that which they have seen and experienced, or that which has been vividly presented to them. The outer world is brought into the school room. The Three R's with drawing, measuring, estimating, are naturally in evidence, and they do not suffer because of the strong motive for their use.

#### ARITHMETIC

George, Fred and Jacob went to Child's for luncheon. George paid for all.

They had potatoes at .10

corn at .05

Ham and eggs at .25

Punch the check.

[Here follows a facsimile of a Child's restaurant check.]

#### MY LITTLE HUMPHACK BABY

My bean plant when it first comes up looks like a thick green hoop [drawing] then as I watched it grow it looked like this [drawing] I sometimes watch and wonder why it does not grow up straight like the corn; it also looked like the bill of a dear little baby chicken coming out of an egg shell.

This little baby plant must have some reason for making itself like a hoop, lets see why it does this, the hoop is firm and hard and tough now if it [drawing] had grown straight up, the little green tip would be at the very top and as it worked its way up through the ground, this little tip would soon be broken [drawing]. So by crooking its [drawing] stem the plant is injured in no way. I think there is a reason for every little part of the plant, don't you? [drawings]

HELEN W.

Another phase of the search for reality in the school room is seen in the attempt made in many school rooms to make "community life" in the school as real as

is the life of the community outside the school. Following are some illustrations of community life.

A reply to an invitation to a school party written by a child of seven:

Dear little children,

We shall be glad to go to your Valentine party. EDWARD McGRATH.

An account of such a party written by a girl of eleven:

DEAR ROSAMOND,

We are having some very nice times in our school. Monday the twenty-fifth we had a party in the teachers' rest room. We had a very nice time getting ready for the party Martha and Katie cleaned the walls and Lelia carried the chairs and the things out in the hall. Edna cleaned the wood work and I cleaned the sofa. After we finished our work we had our party. We had lemonade and we invited Miss R., Mr. K. and Miss S. Edna and Martha received our visitors and Katie invited the teachers.

Your friend, ALICE.

Community life in school is not without its serious problems, as is shown by the following account by a teacher:

In sewing, on the practical side, the girls are making skirts for themselves—fitting and sewing the skirts. When this work was given them the boys were at work setting up the loom. The girls were somewhat disturbed at this differentiation of labor, or sex, and felt that the boys ought to be made to make "pants." When it was discovered that the boys needed aprons for work in the printing shop, and these were assigned to them, the matter was satisfactorily settled. Each of the children in this group has been taught how to darn stockings, so that a boy or girl who meets with a mishap in play, mends the rent at school.

In many schools a school paper is edited and published by the children, naturally with some help from the teachers. Children of all ages contribute. They do not have to be urged; the push of the social motive is sufficient. Narratives, descriptions, fiction, book reviews, jokes, news items,—in fact everything that is wont to be found in newspapers and magazines,

is also found in the school paper. Illustrations follow:

One day my small brother was playing in the street when he saw a little neighbor come out of the house "all dressed up in her Sunday best." He asked her where she was going. She said: "I'm going to receive with my mother." "It's more blessed to give than to receive," he said, solemnly. MALLY L., Age 10.

#### AN EXCITING NIGHT

It was a sunny afternoon. The sun shone bright on A little Cotage where two little childrene lived. A boy and A girl. The little girl was only two years old. While the boy was eleven. It was so hot that the little girl wore her Calico dress. There was a cannon in the lorn so as to preteckt the childrene. It was twelve O'clock at night and the girl was asleep but it was very luky indeed that the boy was not asleep. He just had his eyes shut. Just at that moment the boy opened his eyes. He saw a flash of a lantern, and a voice said, "I guess they have some money in hear." "Sister" cried the boy in teror. "it is trully a thief." "But," said the little sister stretching "you are not going to shoot off the cannon." The boy said "sure I am." Then the sister fell asleep again. He walked straight up to the cannon and shot it off. It waked the sister, and the thief lay dead on the ground.

ANNA W. M., Age 7.

#### WHY I WOULD RATHER LIVE IN THE COUNTRY

You cannot camp out in the city. You cannot hunt birds or animals unless you want to hunt rats, shoot sparrows with an air-rifle, or bean-shooter. In the country you can make box-traps and catch squirrels, and chipmunks, and woodchucks, while in the city you cannot do anything but hang around and do nothing, or go to shows that may not be any good. In the country if you want a show you can make one up yourself and have much fun. And in the vacation days you can make up a party of a few boys and go out camping for a few weeks, and come back all the better for it. While in the city you have to have your dog muzzled or chained, or else your dog will be taken up by the dog-catcher. MILTON S., Age 11.

In one school the publishing business was carried on a step farther, as de-

scribed in the following account, which explains how boys and girls aged thirteen and fourteen made a printing press for the purpose of printing from plates made by themselves from their own drawings:

The Eighth Grade designed landscapes in the art department, first in outline, then in three tones—black, grey and white. These were transferred to zinc plates in pencil, and the grey tones filled in with asphaltum and varnish, and scratched with sandpaper. The solid black tones were then put in with asphaltum and varnish, and the whole left to dry.

The plates were then etched in nitric acid—one part of acid to six of water—and were immersed for about two hours. These plates were then mounted on blocks of wood to make them type high.

An ink roller was made by casting a mixture of glue and molasses in the cylinder of an old bicycle pump. Tracks were arranged so that the roller could run from a glass plate, which held the ink, over to the cut to be inked. The presses in which these cuts were printed were made entirely of wood with a bed 6x9 inches. The mechanism to get pressure was a simple toggle joint. The paper on which the cuts were to be printed was moistened, then laid on the cut, and the whole inserted in the press.

I have spoken of this introduction of reality into the school room as something comparatively new; and so it is, broadly speaking. But this does not mean that good teachers have not always used good methods; and that poor teachers do not now use poor methods. It was a poor teacher who recently set this problem in arithmetic: "If one cow cost \$10, how much will six cows cost?" When the boy hesitated the teacher said, "Can't you solve that?" "Yes," replied the boy, "I can solve it all right, but you can't buy no sort of a cow for \$10; Father had to pay \$35 for one last week." And, on the other hand, it was a good teacher who, about forty years ago, in a little district school, kept her pupils on the *qui vive* one winter, attending to the real wants of an imaginary old lady living in a fictitious cabin hard by the school. There was wood to be cut and hauled; there were provisions to be laid in from various

sources; there were a few products to be marketed or exchanged at market prices; there were repairs to be estimated upon, and contracted for. The arithmetic in that school during that winter made little mention of the impossible and uninteresting doings of those mythical personages A and B. There was real work to be done,—work necessitated by a condition, not a theory.

But there is another world besides the modern one of present and sensible reality. In it the child lives and has his being as truly as in the other. He must be made to feel at home in it as well as in the other. In the curriculum of the elementary school, therefore, we find not merely prose, but poetry; not alone facts, but fancies; not present civilization merely, but civilization reduced to its lowest terms in the life of primitive man. There is no inconsistency, and no difficulty in combining these diverse elements. At the St. Louis Exposition, Machinery Hall was but a step from the art galleries. The huts of the Hairy Ainu were not far from the exhibits of the Agricultural Building; primitive processes of copper-smelting, carried on by workmen content with 35 cents a day, were placed side by side with the most improved machinery. Many a sight-seer, overwhelmed with the whole civilized show found refreshment of spirit in watching these primitive industries. It is so with the child. Moreover, the visitor to the primitive copper-smelting plant was not content with merely looking on. He mounted the board himself and ran the bellows,—first one foot, then the other,—until he felt how it would be to work for 35 cents a day, and entered a little way into the simple life of the primitive man whose place he had taken. It is just so with children. They are not content merely to read about or hear about Indians, or Esquimaux, or the Ab family. They must themselves *be* those, performing their occupations and living their life.

By placing the child back at the beginning of things, and bringing home to

him the elemental needs of providing food, shelter and clothing, not only is a key given to modern life, but also a clue to history. The following account of work done by children of about ten years of age illustrates the development of the historic sense:

In history the group has continued the study of the Phoenicians, finding out how they could use the mines and forests of the Lebanon range to obtain by trade with other peoples the necessities and luxuries of life. With the increase of trade they saw the necessity for some method of keeping records, and from this need resulted the alphabet as an improvement on the earlier pictographic or ideographic writing. To make the discovery concrete to the children, we named a Phoenician boy who was taken by his father on an extended trading trip. This bright boy watched his father attempt to record the orders for future delivery, which he took from various merchants, in the picture writing, and resolved to abbreviate the method. The result of his efforts was the alphabet, which was introduced by the Phoenician traders into Greece, and has come down to us in a modified form.

The tendency of work like this is to develop the power to "put yourself in his place." How the same power can be developed by the study of literature is illustrated by the following excerpt from the play of "Joseph and His Brethren," written and acted by the pupils in a school in one of the poorer districts of a city. The dignity and spirit displayed in the acting of this play were impressive:

#### THE RECONCILIATION

*Interpreter.* My lord, thou didst wisely in laying up one-fifth of our store during the years of plenty. The famine doth wax sore in all other lands but in our land no Egyptian lacks food. Even now some Hebrews await thy pleasure to buy grain.

*Joseph.* Let them be brought to me. (*Exit INT.*) God be praised! In His wisdom He guided us to be provident.

(*Enter brethren, bowing low; JOSEPH moved.*)

(*Aside*) Behold, my brethren! (*Roughly*) What brings ye here, men of Canaan?

*Brothers.* To buy food are thy servants come.

*Joseph.* Ye are spies; to see the nakedness of the land ye are come.

*Brothers.* Nay my lord, but to buy food are thy servants come. We are all one man's sons: we are true men, thy servants are no spies.

*Joseph.* Nay, but to see the nakedness of the land are ye come.

*Brethren.* Thy servants are twelve brethren, sons of one man in the land of Canaan; and, behold, the youngest is this day with our father and one is not.

*Joseph.* Ye are spies: hereby ye shall be proved: by the life of Pharaoh ye shall not go forth hence, except your youngest brother come hither. Send one of you, and let him fetch your brother, and ye shall be kept in prison until he appear.

*Reuben.* (*Aside*) We are verily guilty concerning our brother; in that we saw the anguish of his soul, when he besought us, and we would not hear; therefore is this distress come upon us. (*To JOSEPH*) Oh my lord, have mercy upon thy servants. Benjamin our youngest brother is the comfort of our father in his old age! Joseph is no more and if Benjamin be also taken 'twill bring our father's gray hairs down with sorrow to the grave.

(*Enter page with BENJAMIN.*)

The most unmistakable proof that in the vast majority of schools the elementary curriculum has been enriched, is found in the character and amount of the literature which the children are led to read, memorize and love throughout the grades. Twenty years ago the main dependence in this respect was on the reading book; today it is a poor school that does not have a library in each grade. A suggestion of this enrichment may be gained from the following extract from the course of study for a single year in a city system of public schools:

Reading. Several readers including a book of heroic ballads; Lamb's "Adventures of Ulysses;" Hawthorne's "Wonder Book;" Hale's "A Man Without a Country;" and books to supplement the work of the grade in nature, geography, and history. See suggestions under preceding grades. Informal talks on books read at home, with a view to arousing an interest in good reading, are of great value. In recommending books the teacher should be influenced by the tastes and interests of the individual pupils.

Bryant's "Ulysses Among the Phaeacians;" a book of poems on subjects relating to American History, as Brander Matthews' "Poems of American Patriotism;" and Hawthorne's "Tanglewood Tales."

Memorizing. Selections may be made from the book of poems assigned for reading from the following list:

Orpheus with His Lute.....Shakespeare  
The Destruction of Sennacherib...Byron  
A Man's a Man for A' That.....Burns  
The Minstrel Boy.....Moore  
Abou Ben Adhem.....Hunt  
The First Snow-Fall.....Lowell  
Nobility.....Cary  
Sheridan's Ride.....Read  
Song of Marion's men.....Bryant  
The Spacious Firmament....Addison  
Burial of Sir John Moore.....Wolfe  
The Builders.....Longfellow  
Old Ironsides.....Holmes  
One by One.....Procter  
"Breathes there the man".....Scott  
The Blue and the Gray.....Finch  
The White-Footed Deer.....Bryant

Anyone glancing through the respective courses of study for the cities, towns, and villages of the State of New York (and all other states in which a similar condition prevails) will be struck by one phrase which recurs in every grade—"the effects of alcohol and narcotics." One asks himself, why should a child of six or seven, or even of eight or ten years of age, have presented to him this revolting subject? Is there no danger of raising more ghosts than will be laid by this procedure? Is the teaching of temperance an exception to the rule which requires emphasis to be placed upon the positive rather than upon the negative; upon the beauty of holiness rather than upon the ugliness of sin; upon love rather than upon fear? It is difficult to resist the conclusion that the well-meaning but misguided advocates of the state law requiring such objectionable instruction would have served the cause of temperance more effectively had they sought to make children love temperance, rather than hate intemperance. I have yet to meet a single school officer, principal, or teacher, who is out of sympathy with the end sought, or in sympathy

with the means employed, by those responsible for the law in question.

There is one aspect of the American elementary school that sharply differentiates it from European schools of similar grades. European schools are, generally speaking, class schools; they are laid in strata. A child who starts out in one stratum is not expected to find his way into any other. The lowest stratum is a blind alley cut off from access to those above it. The normal destination of a graduate to the *Volksschule* in Germany is a trade, with the advantage of supplementary study in the *Fortbildungsschule*. If a graduate of one of the common schools wished to enter the *Gymnasium*, he would find himself hopelessly behind in certain studies; in Latin, for example, which is never taught in the common schools, but which is always taught in the *Gymnasia* during several of the years in which they run parallel to the common schools. There is, in Germany, at the present time, a movement in the direction of unification (*Einheitsschule*), whereby the study of Latin is postponed to the age of twelve or thirteen. But this movement has not made much headway.

In America, on the other hand, the watchwords of the schools are Democracy and Opportunity. Before every American boy there is planted a ladder on which he may climb as high as he will and can,—as high as anyone may. The humblest boy in the Republic, beginning in the common school, may ascend, without finding a missing rung, to the top of the ladder. No matter in what kind of a school he begins, he can pass readily from that into a higher school, and thence into the highest. In this respect America truly means opportunity. Moreover, at every stage of his school and college life this boy's companions may be boys from the wealthiest or most cultured homes. Each "class" learns from the other, and exerts a salutary influence on the other. The American common school is one of the most democratic of institutions.



## American Municipal Social Service

By E. G. Routzahn

**I**N Mr. Woodhead's article in this issue of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* we learn some reasons why American cities render fewer services than are offered to the citizens of German municipalities. Notwithstanding certain disadvantages of the American point of view much has been accomplished. We are familiar with municipal operation or control of water, gas, electric light, and street railways. We possessed municipal libraries before the era of Mr. Carnegie's conditional gifts which have induced so many communities to assume the support of such institutions. Scientific and historical museums are not unknown, and Philadelphia's art gallery will surely not stand as the sole example of its kind. The art "collections" and "exhibits" so increasingly common as features of public library work doubtless indicate that municipal art patronage may be expressed largely under library auspices.

The recent inauguration of the president of Cincinnati's University is significant in that this municipal institution is the cap-stone of the city's system which begins with kindergartens and continues upward without break. New York's splendid commercial high school and Chicago's plans in the same direction, with the Springfield, Mass., evening trade school, show advances already made in line with German practice.

Medical inspection in various forms is found in the schools of Boston (since 1892), New York, Chicago and Brookline, Mass., which last town does many interesting things. Free breakfasts are supplied to Milwaukee school children,

and properly prepared and reasonably priced noon luncheons are provided in the Newton, Mass., high school. New York leads the world in its provision of free public lectures, an example followed by Milwaukee and smaller cities.

The play centers and clubs maintained in New York school buildings provide recreation and education with opportunities for the fellowship so much needed in the great city.

Boston's midwinter and park concerts have been essentially educational because of the programs arranged for their real merit rather than for supposedly "popular" qualities.

*CHAUTAUQUAN* readers have in mind last month's survey of American recreative facilities; Boston's varied list of parks, baths, public beaches, gymnasium and athletic fields; New York's recreation piers and school roof playgrounds; Toledo's sleighride for every school child; and Chicago's toboggan slides, playground and vacant lot skating facilities, and the elaborate park social center plans.

The school savings funds of eastern towns and Chicago's municipal pawnshop and model lodging house represent extremes of social need; but the lodging house management is no less a constructive philanthropy than the savings fund; and both pawnshop and lodging house are "preventative" to a high degree.

The group of sub-ways—Boston, New York and Chicago—different as they are in purpose and management, are prophetic of solutions of transportation problems. So the former Eads bridge com-



pared with the equally well-known Brooklyn bridge is an effective illustration of financial folly in the city failing to assume the responsibility of exercising these functions.

The docks of New York and St. Louis, the markets of Baltimore and New Orleans, the garbage crematories of Atlanta and Dayton, may be taken merely as additional types of widely diversified services already assumed by American municipalities.

Need we extend the catalogue in order to relieve the down-hearted patriot or to turn the edge of the pessimist's exquisite pleasure in the oft repeated hopelessness of America's civic future? The skeptical one might be referred to the growing list of services rendered by state and nation, lessening the need of municipal activity and limiting somewhat the extension of municipal operations. The Yellowstone and Yosemite parks—unique among the pleasure spots of the world; New York's Niagara reservation and in New Jersey the Essex County park system, are choice examples. Ohio's free employment agencies and the proposed national immigration employment bureau indicate services of much significance to individuals and communities.

One further document of hope may be mentioned. The annual *Review of Legislation*,\* a fascinating record of progressive possibilities and actual achievements, which must be left for personal examination. Especially notable is the evidence of increasing attention by the state, direct and through permissive or mandatory delegation of power to the cities, to matters of public health, safety, and comfort. One quotation from John A. Fairlie's review of "municipal functions" in this volume has special interest:

"The general tendency of these and other measures is in the direction of increasing the functions of municipalities

\*See Yearbook of Legislation, containing Comparative Summary and Index of Legislation (about 300 pp.), Review of Legislation (about 200 pp.), and Digest of Governors' Messages (about 200 pp.), \$1.00, New York State Library, Albany.

in the United States, especially in the field of municipal ownership and operation of what are vaguely called public services, but at the same time to do so by continuing the policy of specific enumerated grants of power; and there is no evidence of any change to the policy of the countries of continental Europe, where cities have general authority to undertake any functions affecting the interests of the city, subject only to the specific restrictions and regulations imposed by central administration. Along with this increase in the active operations of cities, may be noted a tendency to restrict the discretion of city councils in granting franchises conferring special privileges in the public streets."

Again we need to note that American social evolution necessitates a vast amount of voluntary service—of initiative from outside the official machinery. Much that is done by German municipal organization is provided by American lay coöperation, or is being given laboratory test under the direction and at the expense of groups of citizens acting without official recognition. New York's playgrounds, Chicago's vacation schools, and Philadelphia's public baths thus emphasize the initiatory and experimental service rendered by individuals and associations. Throughout the land the kindergarten has been almost entirely a gift of the people to the community. A manufacturer provides a kindergarten for the children of one neighborhood in Dayton, Ohio, and, much visited and talked about, it results in practically every child of kindergarten age in the city being provided for at public expense. The Dayton manufacturer illustrated another phase of the American attitude when he turned over to the nearby public school (after the Board of Education had been properly educated!) the kindergarten equipment, good will, and some financial assistance. Pratt Institute High School, essentially a manual training high school, is in the midst of the closing year of its existence, because its mission as an object-lesson is ending through the broadening of the Brooklyn city high school

privileges. New York has received an isle of safety from the Municipal Art Society, and the Merchants' Association of San Francisco has presented the city with a properly equipped comfort station—both being intended to illustrate eminently practical possibilities for municipal adoption and extension.

But he who sees civic hope only in the land of Briton and Teuton will point to the unpaid service of England's "leisure class," and the compulsory, though honored, participation of Germany's men of affairs. Against that is it not sufficient to merely mention Joseph Lee and Mary Morton Kehew of Boston, Jacob Riis and Charles B. Stover of New York, Mrs. Frederick Schoff and John Wanamaker of Philadelphia, and Jane Addams and Graham Taylor of Chicago?

May all Chautauquans read into their lives the spirit of these noble lines by Richard Watson Gilder, who asserts that—

He speaks not well who doth his time deplore,  
Naming it new and little and obscure,  
Ignoble and unfit for lofty deeds.

All times were modern in the time of them,  
And this no more than others. Do they part  
Here in the living day, as did the great  
Who made old days immortal! So shall men,  
Gazing back to this far-looming hour,  
Say: "Then the time when men were truly  
men:

Though wars grew less, their spirits met the  
test

Of new conditions; conquering civic wrong;  
Saving the state anew by virtuous lives;  
Guarding the country's honor as their own,  
And their own as their country's and their  
son's."



#### CIVIC CLASSIFICATION

The multitudinous functions of city, state and nation may be roughly grouped according to the classification given below. Any such outline can be but partially satisfactory. The very attempt to catalogue and classify the services rendered to the citizen makes clear the intricate interweaving of modern life. The distinctions between municipal, state and national functions are necessarily general, and readjustments are constantly being made. "Municipal" activities, for ex-

ample, are extended through "those functions which are frequently performed by municipal authorities as agents of the state." It is suggested that the reader try his own hand at classification.

**Safety:** City—Fire protection, Police protection, Courts, Jails. State—Militia, Courts, Penitentiary. Nation—Army, Navy, Life-saving, Courts.

**Health:** City—Building and plumbing regulations, Water supply, Public baths and wash houses, Sanitary regulations and inspection, Food and water inspection, Markets and slaughter houses, Sewage and Garbage Disposal, Cemeteries, Crematories, etc. State—Control of streams, Food inspection, Factory inspection. Nation—Food inspection, Investigations of factory conditions, Study of food values.

**Comfort:** City—Smoke abatement, Suppression of noise, Street paving and cleaning, Bridges and ferries, Transportation, Telegraph and telephone, Street lighting, etc. Nation—Postal service.

**Pleasure:** City—Parks and boulevards, Playgrounds, Gymnasiums, Outdoor advertising, Beauty in the street, etc. State—Parks and public reservations. Nation—Parks.

**Business:** City—Licenses, Franchises. State—Franchises, Employment agencies, Insurance, Corporations. Nation—Interstate commerce, Forestry, Irrigation, Weather bureau, Patents, Banks, Fisheries.

**Relief:** City—Charities, Municipal lodging-house, etc. State—Homes for dependents and defectives, Pawnbroking. Nation—Soldier's homes, Pensions.

**Education:** City—Public schools, Vacation schools, Normal schools, Public libraries, Art galleries, Museums, etc. State—Normal schools, University, Library, Library commission. Nation—Library, Museum, Public documents.

It is well to remember that this is merely a study of civic anatomy. The outline fails to reveal the "vital spark," the religious life which is back of community life.

Nor does it reckon with the civic spirit or civic consciousness, that element which slowly, steadily in the hidden arteries of society responds to the throbs of humanity's heart, forcing to every limit and part of the body politic its life sustaining stream of ever-increasing purity and strength.

Nor again, does the outline recognize the spirit of democracy, that stimulating ozone of the western world which fills the lungs of the American people, giving

renewed life and power for civic achievement.

Need we add then, that the immediate and spectacular results of the masterful methods of continental city makers need not in the least lessen a boundless faith in the irresistible, though seemingly erratic development of American cities?



#### DUTIES OF GOOD CITIZENS

"The good citizen should know the laws and institutions of his town; should pay his taxes cheerfully, promptly, and completely; should attend caucuses and help steer good men in and bad men out of candidacies; if sought for an office he should accept it, however humble. He should speak out when things go wrong. He should adorn his home with flowers and shrubs, keep his paths shoveled and sanded when icy."—*G. Stanley Hall.*

"The spasmodic advance of today is due largely to the occasional triumph of the imaginative official or public-spirited citizen over his short-sighted associates. A comprehensive improvement can be expected only when idealism becomes infectious. Our most poetic naturalist says, 'You must have the bird in the heart before you can see it in the bush.' Sylvester Baxter's dream in Boston, ten years ago, of the great metropolitan organization, which has been more than realized, proves that 'all things are possible to him that believeth.' Municipal progress will be quickened when the growth of the communal spirit makes the conception of the composite city possible to a larger citizenship."—*Charles Zueblin.*

"No sooner is a young citizen of the German Empire born into the world than he is taken and cared for, if need be, at some public creche; then, as soon as he can make free use of his limbs he enters the nursery-house, and from there he goes to the school where he has play-grounds and skating-rinks in winter, and is taken on excursions into the country in the summer. In short, municipalities make every effort to supply their coming citizens with bodily strength as well as mental cultivation. In many cities more than half the annual expenditure is devoted to the maintenance of schools for different stages of education, *gymnasias, realschulen*, higher elementary and people's schools."—*Robert Wuttke.*

"Abuse and denunciation alone will not improve the moral condition of a man or a community. Municipal government is what the people of a city make it. It can not long remain better or worse than the majority that create it, and city politics will be pure or corrupt according to the controlling influence."—*Bird S. Coler, in Municipal Government.*

"What is an improvement association to call out a discussion involving questions of political philosophy! Perhaps you have thought the object of the association is simply to clean streets and dispose of garbage, and is of passing interest at best. For my own part my interest in the organization is aroused because it promises to become a genuine social institution."—*Oscar L. Triggs.*

#### DEFINITION OF CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

The new grouping of social forces which expresses much of the hope for better things in American municipal life is becoming best known as "civic improvement." This phase stands for the people's part in public improvement, for the civic service to be given by every citizen, child and adult. It stands for the training in citizenship and for right relations in all municipal matters through the exercise of the simple, commonplace duties of community life. It stands for a movement crossing all the usual lines of cleavage in the community to find mutual interests and common ideals. The health of the city and its cleanliness are interests of all citizens, and the beauty of the city may be a common ideal, whatever the differences caused by church, business, society or politics. It stands for appreciative recognition of all uplift forces, and seeks their sympathetic correlation. "Civic improvement," for the time being, may mean a public playground, a better school building, street cleaning, tree planting, competent city officials, home gardening, a branch of the public library, free public lectures, or whatever promises to rally the social forces of the neighborhood, but step by step these simple beginnings should lead to the higher ideals and the larger possibilities.



#### MUNICIPAL BATHS IN THE UNITED STATES

It is estimated that in 1903, 34 American cities had made provision, more or less adequate, for public baths, these representing a fixed investment in land, buildings, and equipment, of \$2,879,231. There were altogether 136 municipal baths of which 67 were beach and floating baths entailing but a small investment and of use only in the summer months. The remaining 69, with the exception of one or two open air natatoriums, were in buildings, and open to the public in winter as well as in summer. These figures do not include public baths conducted by

individuals and charitable organizations, but only those owned and controlled by municipalities. Detailed accounts of expense, attendance, etc., may be found in the exhaustive report contained in the Bureau of Labor Bulletin for September, 1904.

The development of the public bath since 1890 is remarkable when it is remembered that previous to that year there were practically no facilities for bathing offered the general public in cities, other than those afforded by sea or lake beaches and rivers. Open water bathing was, of course, impossible for more than four months a year. During the winter months everyone was thrown upon the facilities afforded him by the house or tenement in which he lived.

When, in the years 1887-1893, investigations were made by various organizations and individuals into the adequacy of accommodations afforded for bathing by city houses and tenements, rather startling results were obtained. Private investigators maintained that five-sixths of the inhabitants of some cities had no facilities for bathing other than a pail and sponge, or, in summer, the open water of lake, river, and ocean. Official investigations confirmed this general statement and supplied in addition detailed statistics. Some of the worst slum districts of Baltimore, Chicago, New York, and Philadelphia were studied by the Federal Bureau of Labor, and in these the percentage of accommodations was far below that of the city as a whole. In a selected district of New York, housing 28,966 people, but 2.33 per cent of the families had bathrooms. In a corresponding district of Chicago the percentage was only slightly higher, being 2.83. In Baltimore and Philadelphia the percentages were considerably greater though still frightfully low. In the selected district of Baltimore 7.35 per cent of all families, comprising 9.21 per cent of the total population, had bathrooms, and in Philadelphia 16.9 per cent. In New York,

among those families possessing bathrooms there was an average of 8.14 persons to each bathroom and in Philadelphia an average of 7.42.

The conditions prevailing among the slum population of large cities as revealed by these statistics were obviously a serious menace to the public health, and efforts were made to establish in American cities public baths modeled on the public baths of Germany. Indeed it was a report made by a New York physician in 1889 upon the successful operation of German baths which led to much of the investigation into the conditions prevailing in American cities. During the last ten years individual and municipal enterprise have endeavored with increasing success to provide public baths to accommodate those who lack adequate facilities in their homes. Thirty-four cities in the United States have now made some provision for public baths. In addition to the municipal baths a number have been opened by philanthropic societies and individuals.

The municipal baths now in operation are of several kinds, and are subject to various regulations as regards charges, methods of operation, etc. Three types of bath comprise roughly all forms now in use: first, the beach baths, floating baths and open air natatoriums, which can be used only during the warm weather and chiefly in those cities with a frontage on large bodies of pure water; second, shower baths; and third, pool baths, usually run in connection with shower baths. The old time tub bath is now almost obsolete, for it has been found that the shower bath is less expensive, quicker, more sanitary and more effective than the older type. The charges vary in different baths. In some no charge whatever is made; in others a nominal charge is made for soap and towels. Of a third type are those baths which make a small charge for part of the week and are free for the remainder of the time. In every case, however, the effort is made

to bring the bath within the reach of all, however poor.

An interesting development in connection with the municipal bath is the public laundry where women may take soiled clothes and have the use of machinery, drying rooms etc., which make washing and ironing cheaper, quicker and more thorough. In some baths, also, facilities are provided for washing and ironing the underclothing of bathers. Two municipal baths at Buffalo, New York, contain such facilities.

The most difficult questions to decide in connection with public baths are those of location and expense. The two are closely related, for with a given amount of money it is often hard to say whether it is better to build one large, handsome building in a central location or to build two or three smaller ones of cheaper construction at different points in the city. The best results seem to have been attained with the smaller baths located at convenient points. In large cities accessibility is the chief requisite of a public bath if it is to serve its purpose. If it is too remote from the poorer districts it fails to reach the people for whom it is intended. In Boston a compromise is being effected by the erection of occasional larger baths in those sections of the city in which the slum population is extremely congested.

The establishment of school baths in districts where the children lack proper home care is an experimental extension of the public bath system which is said to yield favorable results in the few cities which have tried it. Instruction in swimming is given by a regular gymnasium teacher when swimming pools are accessible. The chief object of the baths is, however, cleanliness, and as it is too expensive to establish pools in the school buildings, usually only an inexpensive shower bath system is provided.

The growing attendance at the municipal bath houses in the large cities indicate that they fill a great social need and supply to thousands the means for cleanliness

which otherwise would be lacking. This cleanliness must mean improved health, and, perhaps, improved morals as well, in the poorer classes of our cities.



#### INVESTMENT PHILANTHROPY

Announcement is made that plans have been approved for the construction of a model tenement house in Pittsburg by the Tenement Improvement Company of that city. This is the first effort of this character that has been attempted in Pittsburg, but, relying on the successes attending similar movements elsewhere, notably the City and Suburban Homes Company of New York, a number of the most prominent men and women of the city have become active in the project. The enterprise is named by its promoters "investment philanthropy" and is designed to relieve the suffering of the poorer classes by giving them clean and light dwellings at a reasonable rent. The plans already adopted call for a five-story, fire-proof, brick structure, the ground floor of which will be used for stores and shops, and the upper floors to have each twenty suites of two and three rooms, to be provided with baths, gaslight and heat and other modern conveniences. An abundance of fresh air and light will be provided, and no pains will be spared to make the sanitary arrangements the best.

In all recent movements of this character it will be seen that there are two motives—one philanthropic and the other financial,—and when in combination, mutual benefits result. The kind of philanthropy that is one sided in its benefits, while perhaps meritorious, is found to fail because it is not self-sustaining and because its recipients feel themselves the objects of charity.

In Washington a similar project has been carried on for several years. General George M. Sternberg in a report in *Charities*, July 23, 1904, gives a most instructive résumé of conditions in that city.

After citing the census reports showing the high mortality in the District of Columbia, he lays this largely to the "overcrowded and unsanitary houses, hidden away from the public gaze and . . . conditions which foster disease, immorality and crime." Quoting from the report, we read:

"It is evident that the most essential measure for the improvement of existing conditions is the providing of sanitary homes for the poor of the city at reasonable rentals, thus affording them a way to escape from unsanitary and degrading conditions under which many of them are compelled to live. With this object in view, a commencement was made, in 1897, by the organization of the Washington Sanitary Improvement Company. Those who took part in the organization of this company realized that but little would be accomplished unless it could be shown that money invested in this way would be secure and would bring a reasonable return in dividends. . . . The company has paid a dividend at the rate of five per cent per annum on all stock issued and yet has a surplus fund of \$33,371.44. . . . The number of houses owned is 126, containing 252 apartments all of which are occupied by a desirable class of tenants—industrious wage-earners of the better class. . . . Our three-room flats are now rented at from \$9.50 to \$11.00 per month; the four-room flats from \$12.50 to 16.50; the five-room flats at from \$16.00 to \$21.00 per month. Each flat has a bath-room with hot and cold water, a cellar, two or more closets, a kitchen dresser, a sink in kitchen with hot and cold water, a good range in the kitchen, an independent entrance, a separate back yard and exit to the alley."

Dividend arrangements provide that from the income a sum shall be set aside for repairs, or if no repairs be needed, it is given as a rebate to the tenant, giving him a special inducement to take care of his flat.

The results arising from this policy have been for the best. Quoting again from the report we read: "Already our plans have been copied to a considerable extent, and there is a marked tendency on the part of landlords to build a better class of houses for wage-earners and to

be satisfied with a more reasonable rate of interest upon their investments."

The success attending this project resulted in a like movement for the "building of houses at a still lower rental for the industrious poor of the city." But the probable income being smaller, the Washington Sanitary Housing Company on an estimated dividend of four per cent, was incorporated in April, and already contracts have been made for the erection of twenty houses to contain forty flats of three and four rooms each. Sites have been selected on neglected streets where land is cheap, and the purpose is to make the rent seven or eight dollars per month. It is hoped in this way to improve the appearance of the location in which the houses are situated and indirectly to bring adjoining owners to a realization of the fact that their interests will be bettered by the improvement of their property.



#### A "CITY SCHOOL-TOOTH-CLINIC"

Under this typical German title, the common council of Strassburg makes a very interesting report upon the establishment in that city of a department to inspect and care for the teeth of children who are in the elementary schools. The German authorities believe that the public health is menaced by the lack of care taken for the preservation of children's teeth. To poor teeth are due nervousness, anemia, and other ills, which, in the child, make for listlessness and mental dullness, and, in the adult, for general inefficiency. The common council, therefore, made provision for the inspection and care of teeth. During the first year 5,343 children were examined and 2,666 treated. Fillings to the number of 699 were made and 2,912 teeth were extracted. More startling are the figures that of 4,000 school children only 104 had perfectly sound teeth: of 2,000 girls, 42, and of 2,000 boys, 62. Ninety-seven and one-half per cent of all the children had defective teeth.

The importance of removing early in life the handicap of bad teeth, can be readily appreciated. Parents, however, too often fail to take the trouble and pains required, and it remains for the public authorities to do the necessary work if it is to be done at all. The admirable point in the Germans' solution of the matter is the direct way they go at an obvious evil, unworried by any theories as to whether the move is "socialistic" or not. In this country improvements in the care of school children are too often objected to because they are said to lead to socialism, an objection which, if sound, is a stronger argument in behalf of socialism than its opponents intend.



#### JUNIOR CITIZENS

"The place to begin the study of civic esthetics, as for all political education, is right where the pupil stands—with the city in which he lives. Now a practical basis for a beautiful city," said John Quincy Adams, before the Boston Conference on Good Government, "is clean streets. Let the pupil go about the town or city making a study of its cleanliness or squalor. This will naturally lead to a study of the street-cleaning department, its organization, methods, expenditures and results. Then its spirit, functions, and achievements may be compared with those of other similar cities. . . . Can any one doubt the great benefit to be derived from such a course of study, or the ease with which a keen interest may thus be awakened in municipal affairs? The students, instead of being compelled to learn by rote facts and political organizations, will be constantly on a voyage of discovery, gathering new data and interpreting their meaning. . . . By studying civics in this way an organic relation is established between each citizen and his political environment—the concrete expression of civic life. . . . For a long time we have tried to hold voters up to their political duties by exhortations instead of making our political

education a means of establishing a vital relation between the voter and the political life about him."

The work of the Junior Citizens' League is based on this idea of intelligent, interested conduct with the immediate environment of the child, and the exercise of the simpler duties of citizenship in preparation for the larger opportunities and greater responsibilities of later life. The awakening of interest, the cultivation of observation, and inspiration to simple acts of service are vital factors in right "training for citizenship."

"Junior Citizens' League" is a name and an idea, rather than an organization. In *Boys and Girls*, the publication of the League, will be found suggestions for "busy work," for morning exercises and Friday afternoons, and for supplementary work correlating with the regular courses in English, arithmetic, nature study, etc. As a club, where a simple organization is desired, the League is fully adaptable to the desires of the teacher and the needs of the school. There is no constitution or cumbersome machinery. The club meeting, held as a part of the Friday afternoon work, provides parliamentary drill, practice in public speaking, the preparation of and the presentation of committee reports, and for much English work which is done in preparation for the meetings. The monthly letters or reports of personal observation are actually forwarded to headquarters and thus letter-writing is made a pleasurable feature of the school work. A name can be selected, officers elected and committees selected. Any matter of discipline, civic or school duty, subject for reading or observation, etc., may be referred by the teacher or club to a committee of one or several of the members—and all pupils in the room "belong" by virtue of their school enrollment.

D. F. Wilcox, in "The American City," insists that "the school curriculum should give a more important place to the study of municipal sociology. The city is the

great household of which the school is the nursery." The Junior Citizens' League, recognizing these facts, offers suggestive material for use by the teacher of average opportunity and with the average professional preparation, so that under any ordinary conditions the usual program of the school may be enriched without the burden of an additional course by making use of the suggestive material provided for class room or club purposes. Those interested should read the chapter on Civic Education in Mr. Wilcox's work, together with Hodge's "Nature Study and Life," which link the great wonderland of the outdoors with the everyday experiences of child and adult.



#### SCHOOL CIVICS

"Civics" is not "civil government." The first is for the elementary school, the second for high schools and beyond. The first corresponds with the better type of "nature study," the second may be said to correspond with the elementary science of the high school.

The first of three "compositions" from Chicago elementary schools given below was written by a fifteen year old citizen of German birth, and carries its own message. All three specimens of actual school papers afford glimpses of the real boy whose "interest has been awakened in his immediate environment." Would that educators and reformers generally might recognize that a boy will "want to be" an industrially good citizen if his interest is awakened and opportunities for genuine service are pointed out. There is a close parallel between the boy and man in this respect, though denunciation of official corruption and floods of patriotic oratory bewilder the judgment so that few realize the significance of the simpler agencies for betterment.

#### THE ALLEY PAVEMENT

A great deal of our alleys are not paved, which brings forth that they are mostly very dirty. Some alleys are paved and are sometimes cleaner than some streets.

Our alley is not paved at all and it is hard to get through after it had been raining. If it did not rain it is very dirty too, because right in our back there is a creamery which throws all their abused water on the alley.

The alley is kept very clean in account of the garbage. There is very seldom a piece of paper to be seen in the back-yards, because everybody is got a metal garbage-box. A few months ago some man had a wooden box and when the inspector came around he saw this box and after a few days everybody saw with pleasure that the very same man, who said that he would not buy a metal box had one.

It is very beautiful to have a nice alley and there are certain ways to do it and it should be everyone's desire to have a nice alley.

#### THE WAY A BOY CAN HELP KEEP THE CITY OF CHICAGO CLEAN

There are many ways a boy can help keep our city clean. Most people think Chicago will always be as dirty as it has been and have no pride in our city. There is an old saying, "Tis never to late to do good." This might be impressed on our mines more, and we might not throw paper on the streets. This ought to be taught to the old as well as young even if they do make more dirt and receive all the blame.

Another way which is about the same is not leave the papers lay on the streets, or throw banana skins, apple cores, or caremal wrappers on our streets.

Make your lawn look green. Have the grass green with no hay in it. Make the yards beautiful with flowers and vines,—you may have many vines but if feel interested in the cleaning leave out the whild cucumber vines for they are the boys' cannon balls, for as soon as they appear we have our fun and all over the streets we see them.

I suppose you say to yourself if you read this paper, "Why does the boy who cares so much for his city or seems to, do this." Well I will explain, *Temptation is great*. And when one gets started well—you know the rest. So if you want to keep us out of Temptation don't plant cucumber vines.

#### WHAT A BOY CAN DO

Of course we know that the President, and the army officers are patriots, but we do not stop to think how we too could be patriots.

Every one would like to see the streets and alleys of every city clean and the lots cleared of tin cans, wire, and other rubbish, but they do not think how easily it could be accomplished.

The boy would be glad to help in this good work and would make a great improvement in the appearance of the cities if the older people would only keep it clean when it was once that way.

You have no idea how industrious a boy can be if he only wants to be, and if this plan was carried out I think the boys could be termed patriots.



#### TOPICS IN THE MAGAZINES

The New Method of Purifying Water. Gilbert H. Grosvenor, *Century*, December.

The Church and Civic Improvement. Charles Mulford Robinson, *Church Economist*, December.



Municipal Sculpture From the American Point of View. Frederick Willington Ruchstuhl, *The Craftsman*, December.

The Garden City. From French of George Benoit-Lévy, *The Craftsman*, December.

Art in the Home and School. Irene Sargent. *The Craftsman*, December.

School Gardening in Yonkers. *The School Journal*, November 26.

The Playground as a Part of the Public School. Joseph Lee. *Ethical Record*, December, 1904.

The Culture and Care of Palms. Eben E. Rexford. *Lippincott's*, for January, 1905.

The Housing of City Masses. Edwin R. L. Gould. *International Quarterly*, January, 1905.

German and American Forestry Methods. Guenther Thomas. *Forum*, January.



#### FROM THE FIELD

At the last election St. Paul adopted a charter amendment "to provide and maintain public playgrounds for children, and to levy the necessary tax to acquire and support the same, not exceeding in any one year the sum of \$10,000." This achievement followed one year's experience in establishing a playground with \$2,500 furnished by the city council.

The subject of "Play," to which the Survey of Civic Betterment and other space in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* was devoted last month, was a leading topic at the recent convention of the Illinois State Teacher's Association. Dr. Bayard Holmes spoke on "The Physiology of Play," Miss Jane Addams "The Sociology of Play," and Professor Oscar L. Triggs "The Philosophy of Play."

Eight vacation schools were successfully conducted in Chicago during the summer of 1904. Income of \$12,000 was provided by a \$5,000 appropriation from the board of education, support of sixty-seven women's clubs, and generous individual subscriptions. There was a special camp for crippled children. A department for the blind in one school, and departments for the deaf were conducted in three schools.

"The conference (thirty-first National Conference of Charities and Correction held at Portland, Me.) has wisely followed the trend of up-to-date charity in broadening the sphere of subjects to which it gives consideration—a tendency heretofore made manifest by its committee on housing reform, child labor and neighborhood improvement, and all the more emphasized this year by the scheme of the next conference, which includes committees on philanthropic education and training for social workers, treatment of tuberculosis, visiting nursing, juvenile courts and day nurseries, as well as the continuance of the committee on neighborhood improvement."—Robert W. de Forest in *Charities*.

The announcement is made that John S. Kennedy has endowed the New York School of Philanthropy with \$250,000 in recognition of the valuable work done by this organization during the past seven years. Mr. Kennedy is the donor of the United Charities Building in which the Charity Organization Society has, in addition to its administrative work, conducted the Philanthropy School. The purpose of the school is to provide suitable training for

those who are to enter philanthropic work, and its value may be indicated by the fact that its course which was originally conducted during the summer only now requires a full year. With the income from the endowment it will be possible to establish the work permanently on its present basis and increase its scope in certain directions. The management of the school is left to a committee which is to be appointed from the Charity Organization Society and which is to have as *ex officio* members, the president of Columbia University and the heads of several charitable institutions.



## CIVIC PROGRESS PROGRAMS

### AMERICAN MUNICIPAL ACTIVITIES

These programs supply material for club programs and for individual study. Correspondence is invited from those using these programs or portions of them in any manner. Roll-call: Respond with some fact or figure about an American city, particularly references to what is done for the citizens.

Summary: Epitomize article on German Municipal Social Service, by Howard Woodhead, in February *CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Correlation: Appoint some person to outline briefly the interrelation of the civic topics in the February *CHAUTAUQUAN*: Civic Lessons from Europe, Reading Journey in Germany, German Master Musicians, Social Progress in Europe, How the American Boy is Educated, items in Survey of Civic Betterment, Highways and Byways, etc.

Definitions: Ask different members to look up definitions for "municipal ownership," "public utilities," "city functions," "city," "municipality," "franchise," "citizen," "citizenship," "civic improvement," "civics," "civil government," etc.

Research: "American municipal activities" as revealed by an examination of American Municipal Progress, Charles Zueblin; Constructive and Preventative Philanthropy. Joseph Lee; Municipal Engineering and Sanitation, M. N. Baker; files of *Municipal Affairs*, *Municipal Journal and Engineer*, *Charities*, *The Commons*, and *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Report: A committee (of one or several) may report on the "Civic Classification" in Survey of Civic Betterment, making changes or an entire rearrangement. An outline of the "Classification" on a blackboard or large sheets of paper will add interest and value.

Local Report: A committee may report on the "Civic Classification" in Survey of Civic Betterment (a) noting those functions already exercised in your community; (b) suggesting some practicable extensions.

Discussion: General discussion of above report.

Paper: "The American Municipal Problem." See Municipal Development in the United States, J. A. Fairlie; The Municipal Problem in the United States, H. E. Deming; The City in the United States—The Proper Scope of its Activities, Albert Shaw, in *A Municipal Program* (National Municipal League); Municipal Problems, F. J. Goodnow; The

- Municipal Problem, C. R. Woodruff, CHAUTAUQUAN, 36:177-182, Nov., '02.
- Paper: "The Darkness before the Dawn," see Shame of the Cities, Lincoln Steffens; Fight for the City, Alfred Hodder; and magazine articles.
- Paper: "Civic Improvement—The People's Part in Municipal Betterment." See The Philosophy of the Betterment Movement, O. L. Triggs, CHAUTAUQUAN, 37:463-466, Aug., '03; Civic Cooperation, Local Centers of Civic Life, and a Program of Civic Effort, in the American City, D. F. Wilcox; Work of Individuals and Societies, in The Improvement of Towns and Cities, C. M. Robinson; Definition of Civic Improvement, CHAUTAUQUAN: 40: 568, Jan., '05.
- Paper: "A Campaign of Education." See Practical Agitation, J. J. Chapman; The Cosmopolis City Club, Washington, Gladden; Practical Suggestions, in The Twentieth Century City, Josiah Strong; Working with the People, C. C. Sprague.
- Reading: From How the American Boy Is Educated, by Walter L. Hervey, in this issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
- Discussion: "What Can We Do?" See What to Do in this department of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Appoint several speakers in advance and give others opportunity for brief remarks.
- Prophetic Address: "The Coming City." See The Coming City, R. T. Ely, and references above.
- Bibliographical: Report on Reading References about Municipal Activities and the Cooperation of Citizens. Make a special endeavor to secure readers for such material.

## MUNICIPAL BIBLIOGRAPHY

The reference lists accompanying the Civic Progress Programs have made frequent mention of A Bibliography of Municipal Problems and City Conditions by R. C. Brooks. This work, with the files of *Municipal Affairs* in which the Bibliography has appeared, should be known to all interested in municipal matters. The following list of principal topics in the subject index suggests interestingly the extended range of material inviting study and investigation: City Government General Works and Unclassified: Municipal art; Baths; Bossism; Building Laws; Burials; Cemeteries; Charities; Church and Municipal Conditions; Civil Service; Councils and Boards of Aldermen; Direct Legislation; Elections; Electrolisis; Municipal Engineering; Finances; Fires and Fire Department; Garbage and Refuse Disposal; Home Rule; Housing Problem; Libraries; Lighting; Liquor Problem; Municipal Control, Municipal Ownership; Parks, Playgrounds, Squares; Parties and Party Politics; Pavements, Paving; Police; Population, Growth of Cities, Proportional Representation; Sanitation; School System; Settlement Movement; Sewage Disposal; Streets. Street Building, Street cleaning; Transit Facilities; Unemployed; Water Supplies.

## ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

*Reader's Guide to Periodicals*, *Poole's Index*, etc., will locate references in available periodicals.

*Magazines of the Week*, in current issues

of *Charities* gives the latest references under a variety of topics.

*Municipal Journal and Engineer* gives monthly a wide range of material, with many illustrations.

CHAUTAUQUAN, October, 1901, to date, contains valuable articles, practical suggestions and reading lists.

*Park and Cemetery* treats of landscape gardening, park and village improvement problems.

City for the People, Frank Parsons.

Municipal Administrations, J. A. Fairlie.

Municipal Functions, M. R. Maltbie.

Municipal Government in Continental Europe, Albert Shaw.

Municipal Government in Great Britain, Albert Shaw.

Municipal Monopolies, E. W. Bemis.

See publications of National Municipal League, Philadelphia, for authoritative discussion of administrative problems and conditions.

Value of Municipal Associations, W. S. Crandall, *Municipal Journal and Engineer*, 14: 4, 5, Jan. '03.

Proceedings of National Convention upon Municipal Operation & Public Franchises, *Municipal Affairs*, 6: 509-865, No. 4, '02.

Influence of Neighborhood Improvement Association, C. W. Loring, *Park and Cemetery*, Dec. '01, 11: 178.

First German Municipal Exposition, Howard Woodhead, *American Journal of Sociology*, 9: 433-58, 612-30, 812-31; 10: No. 1, Jan.—July, '04.

Growth of Cities, A. F. Weber.

Yearbook of Legislation. New York State Library.

Twentieth Century City, Josiah Strong.

## WHAT TO DO

First—Observe, study, and discuss the municipal activities and needs which touch your daily life. Watch for civic material in your newspaper, and read carefully one or more of the books noted above, which will give you a background for placing proper values on the mass of facts gleaned in your reading and observation.

Second—Render service to the city and to your fellow citizens. "Study and serve" may well be a good citizenship motto. Study without service brings woefully limited results; service without study will doubtless mean unwise effort and probably a disheartened citizen.

Show the accompanying program and reading references to school, club and public librarians, with the suggestion that all patrons be given opportunity to read this material.

List the organizations which might arrange for lectures or discussion of municipal topics, and from time to time endeavor to enlist the leaders.

Accepting the testimony of the authorities that the work among the children is of fundamental importance, bring the matter to the attention of school people, parents' associations, etc. *Boys and Girls*, Ithaca, New York, will supply ample information.

Send to the editor of THE CHAUTAUQUAN the address of any individual, committee or club of any kind interested in the bettering of municipal conditions or extension of municipal functions.

# Current Events Programs and News Summary

## CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS

### DOMESTIC

Prize Definitions: Award prize for best list of definitions, required on slips distributed at the meeting, of the following current terms: Rebate, drawback, differential, pooling, imperialism, open shop, trust, graft, commercialism, collective bargaining, civics, public conscience.

Papers: (a) Government Land Frauds, Past and Present, in the United States; (b) Postal Telegraph vs. Private Companies; (c) The Blight of Mormonism; (d) Federal Licenses for Corporations as a Remedy for Trust Evils; (e) Character Sketches of Eva Booth, Commander-in-Chief Salvation Army, John F. Wallace, Chief Engineer Panama Canal.

Address: Evolution of the Railroad Industry in the United States.

Readings: (a) From "The Slav in America," Symposium in *Charities*, December 3, '04; (b) From "The World's Battle with Consumption," Henry F. Cope, *World Today*, January, and "Tuberculosis: The Real Race Suicide," Samuel Hopkins Adams, *McClure's*, January; (c) From "The Doctrine of Expatriation," John Bassett Moore, *Harper's Monthly*, January; (d) From "Pathfinders of the West," Agnes C. Laut; (e) From "God in His World," Lyman Abbott, *Outlook*, December 31.

Debate: Resolved, That the Interstate Commerce Commission Should be Given Power to Fix Railroad Rates.

### FOREIGN

Summary: Review of demands for reform in Russia.

Papers: (a) Famines in Ireland; (b) The Progress of Mexico (apropos seventh term of Porfirio Diaz as President); (c) Cabinet Changes in Spain; (d) Famous War Correspondents.

Address: The Story of Port Arthur.

Readings: (a) From "The Present State of Europe," Emil Reich, *International Quarterly*, January; (b) From "The Great Era of English Reform," Frederic A. Ogg, *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for February; (c) From "A Missionary Review of the Past Year," Robert E. Speer, *Missionary Review of the World*, January; (d) From "The Dawn of the New Era in Russia," E. J. Dillon, *Review of Reviews*, January; (e) From "With Our Southern Neighbors" (South America), *Public Opinion*, December 29.

War Report: Progress of Russo-Japanese Conflict during the Month.

## NEWS SUMMARY

### DOMESTIC

December 1.—Louisiana Purchase Exposition closes in St. Louis.

3.—Governor-elect Douglas of Massachusetts offers post of adjutant-general to Lieutenant-General Miles. The price of cotton drops \$2.50 per bale because of the government estimate of a crop of over 12,000,000 bales. The report of Secretary Taft on the outcome of the negotiations with the government of Panama

is received and approved by President Roosevelt.

4.—The president and cashier of the Oberlin bank which made loans to Mrs. Chadwick are arrested. Secretary Taft's agreement with the government of Panama settles the disputed points of customs duties, postal rates, etc.

5.—Congress opens. Attorney-General Moody asks for such extensions of the government's power as will make it possible to secure arrests in federal cases anywhere in the territories of the United States. Charges of fraud in the granting of rewards at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition are made. Secretary Shaw sends to Congress an estimate of \$619,548,937 for appropriations in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1906.

6.—President Roosevelt sends message to Congress. He asks that power be given the Interstate Commerce Commission to decide upon and enforce railway rates.

7.—Mrs. Chadwick is arrested by federal authorities. Thomas W. Lawson, of Boston, causes a severe break in stocks.

8. Continued decline in the price of stocks causes almost a panic on the New York stock exchange.

9.—The packages of "securities" upon which Mrs. Chadwick procured loans are found to contain only brown paper. Dr. D. C. Gilman is reelected president of the National Civil Service Reform League.

10.—Rear-Admiral Davis sails from New York to take part in the Dogger bank inquiry.

12.—Representatives from western and southern railroads meet Commissioner General of Immigration Sargent to discuss plans to divert immigrants from cities to agricultural regions of South and West. President Roosevelt announces that Secretary Morton has consented to remain in the cabinet after March 4. The United States supreme court decides that the Western Union Telegraph Co. has not the right to maintain its poles on the lines of the Pennsylvania railroad.

13.—The House of Representatives adopts the report of the judiciary committee recommending the impeachment of Judge Charles Swain of the northern district of Florida for high crimes and misdemeanors. Dr. R. S. Woodward, of Columbia university, is chosen president of the Carnegie institution. A severe fire at Minneapolis threatens to destroy the entire business section of the city.

15.—August Belmont is elected president of the National Civic Federation to succeed the late Marcus A. Hanna. Further light on practices of the Mormon church is given by witnesses before the Smoot investigating committee of the senate. Chairman O. W. Stewart, of the Prohibition National Committee, makes an attack on John G. Woolley.

16.—Grover Cleveland, Archbishop Ireland, John Mitchell and others speak at a mass meeting in New York in behalf of international arbitration. Election fraud cases in Colorado are to be carried to the United States supreme court.

17.—The Colorado supreme court throws out the vote of four Denver precincts, giving to the Republicans control of both houses of the state legislature. Steamer *Glen Island*

burns in Long Island Sound and nine persons perish.

18.—John F. Wallace, chief engineer of the Panama Canal Commission, submits four plans for the work but favors a sea level canal. Samoans send a petition to President Roosevelt requesting changes in the government of Tutuila. The textile council at Fall River votes to submit an arbitration proposition for the settlement of the strike there to the individual unions.

20.—A standard of food purity to be used in the enforcement of the pure food law is adopted by Secretary Wilson of the Department of Agriculture. General Leonard Wood in his annual report says his troops are continually active in quelling insurrections in the Philippines. The case against Senator Smoot was completed and an adjournment was taken to January 10.

23.—A costly fire in Sioux City, Iowa, almost destroyed the retail district. United States Steel Corporation practically blacklists railroads which accept the interstate commerce commissioner's ruling on the illegality of rate divisions with industrial roads. Secretary Hay proposes that further details in connection with the peace conference be left to the international bureau under the control of the permanent council of The Hague.

24.—United States and Canada agree on a waterway commission which is to investigate and pass upon border waterways. Montana supreme court refuses to bar packing companies from that state on the plea of no jurisdiction.

26.—It is announced that Whitelaw Reid will succeed Joseph H. Choate as ambassador to England.

27.—Seven more indictments in land fraud cases are made by the grand jury in Portland, Oregon. By popular vote the state legislature of Minnesota is directed to abolish the grand jury system.

28.—Senator Mitchell of Oregon is examined by the grand jury at Portland for supposed connection with the land frauds.

30.—Supreme court of Colorado orders a thorough investigation of election frauds.

31.—Senator John H. Mitchell and congressman Binger Hermann of Oregon were indicted by the grand jury at Portland for supposed complicity in the land frauds.

#### FOREIGN

December 1.—General Porfirio Diaz is inaugurated President of the republic of Mexico for the seventh time. It is announced in Paris that the revolutionary, socialists, and other conflicting but radical parties of Russia have united in issuing a manifesto pledging their opposition to autocracy, and their support of democracy.

2.—German Reichstag adopts a resolution asking the government to introduce a bill which will protect the middle commercial classes against large retail stores. Twenty-four Russian warships passed Perim in the Arabian sea on their way to Port Arthur.

3.—Japanese war budget submitted to the diet calls for \$390,000,000. A general engagement is thought to be developing along the Shakhe. Famine threatens west Ireland because of the failure of the potato crop.

4.—It is disclosed in Tokyo that Japan has demanded an explanation from China of the Russian use of Shanghai as a port, and of the Chinese imperial railway as a means for transporting supplies. The Italian crown prince is christened.

5.—Japanese storm Lone Tree Hill but are repulsed.

6.—Finnish diet opens at Helsingfors. Japanese fire at Port Arthur is destroying the Russian warships in the harbor.

7.—The Tzar is said to approve some of the zemstvo reforms but to have referred the memorial to a double council. The battleship *Poltava* is sunk in Port Arthur and the *Retvizan* and *Bayan* are badly injured.

8.—The Combes ministry misses defeat by but two votes. British holders of Colombian bonds ask President Roosevelt to be arbitrator of the amount of the debt to be assumed by Panama.

10.—Japanese cruiser *Saiyen* is officially reported to have been sunken on November 30 by a Russian mine.

11.—Police at St. Petersburg charge a crowd engaged in an anti-government demonstration; many rioters are injured.

13.—Saronoff, the murderer of M. von Plehve is sentenced to penal servitude for life and his accomplice for twenty years. Deputies of the Hungarian opposition wreck the house of Premier Tisza.

14.—It is reported that Admiral Togo made five attempts to torpedo the Russian battleship *Sevastopol*. The Spanish cabinet resigns owing to differences about military reforms. The Cuban house appropriates \$190,000 for street cleaning in Cuban cities.

15.—A conference is held by the Tzar and his ministers in regard to Russian reforms.

16.—A new Spanish cabinet is formed with General Azcarrago as premier. The body of former President Krüger is buried at Pretoria. The Italian government orders the immediate repair of St. Marks, Venice.

18.—Commander Mizzenoff, of the *Poltava*, who brought the dispatches to Chefoo, says the Port Arthur garrison now numbers 16,000, and that there are 8,000 men in the hospitals. A dispatch from Tokyo says the Russian battleship *Sevastopol* has been struck by Japanese torpedoes and disabled.

19.—Japanese capture two more forts at Port Arthur and thus strengthen their position on 203 Meter Hill. A large number of writers for Russian papers in St. Petersburg draw up an indictment against the Russian police for their actions during the riot of December 11.

22.—North sea commission meets in Paris and adjourns to January 9. Eight torpedo boat destroyers are said to have escaped from Port Arthur in a storm. The Tzar declares that the zemstvos have no business to interfere in the administration of the empire.

24.—It is announced that Germany is to have a cardinal at Rome to care for German interests at the Vatican.

21.—Great fog in London ties up traffic.

23.—Russian attack on Lamuting is repulsed.

25.—General Nogi by reason of his latest successes is said to hold all the Russian advanced positions west of Port Arthur.

26.—The Tzar issues an ukase stating that a

council of ministers will pass upon the zemstvo demands. Japanese attack along the railway at Port Arthur is repulsed.

27.—Many accidents to shipping causing a great amount of damage, result from fogs in England. Former President Sam of Hayti is condemned to life imprisonment because of

fraud in the issuance of bonds during his term of office.

29.—Kurapatkin's army is reported to be suffering severely from the extreme cold and inadequate supplies.

31.—Japanese capture forts on Lungshu mountain commanding Port Arthur.

# Chautauqua Spare Minute Course

The Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, complete in the pages of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for 1904-05 beginning with September, has been arranged to meet the demand for a short course of systematic reading in place of haphazard, hit or miss reading to no purpose. The course consists of the seven leading serial topics entitled, "Social Progress in Europe," "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany," "German Master Musicians," "Civic Lessons from Europe," "Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare," "How the American Boy is Educated," and "Nature Study" (the last named beginning in October).

This brief course offers to individuals a means of making the time spent in reading count for something during the year. It is planned to give a background, a standard of judgment, power of discrimination, sense of proportion, in a word education along lines of present-day importance, that will make all one's reading of use to him.

Additional articles and the regular departments of the magazine relate to features of the course and constitute important sidelights upon it. "Highways and Byways" editorial comment on the current events with special reference to the serial topics, "Survey of Civic Betterment," "Talk About Books," "News Summary," programs, helps and hints, and special supplementary articles represent a useful and entertaining variety.

One does not need to become a member of any organization to get the benefit of this "group plan" of reading. There is no membership fee and the course is offered to individual readers complete in the magazine for the year.

## RECOGNITION FROM CHAUTAUQUA

In the last magazine of the year containing Spare Minute Course material, blanks will be printed upon the filling out of which a Spare Minute Course Certificate will be awarded by Chautauqua Institution.

Persons will be entitled to a certificate who have read the Spare Minute Course serials named above. These will be known as "Specified Reading." For reading the other "recommended" serials and departments in the magazine a seal on the certificate will be awarded.

## SPARE MINUTE PROGRAMS

The Chautauqua Spare Minute Course is especially adapted to the use of clubs and societies. It should be particularly helpful to clubs of men, school literary societies, church young people's societies, organizations in shops and stores, and other groups of busy people with few opportunities and limited time.

The program suggestions outlined under this heading will be based upon features of the "Social Progress Year" of topics as presented from month to month in this magazine. It is better to choose a few program suggestions and carry them out well than to try to do too much at a single session.

Summary: Epitomize article on "The Great Era of English Reform," by F. A. Ogg, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for February.

Discussion: Reform Lessons for the United States from British Experience.

Character Sketches: (a) The Earl of Shaftesbury; (b) Robert Owen; (c) William Wilberforce.

Readings: (a) From "Ten Englishmen of the Nineteenth Century," James R. Joy; (b) From "Social England," H. D. Traill; (c) From "Social Unrest," John Graham Brooks; (d) From "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," H. P. Judson; (e) From article on "Free Trade," by Thomas G. Shearman in Encyclopedia of Social Reforms.

Papers: (a) The Place of Beethoven in Music; (b) The Theory and Practice of Universal Suffrage; (c) Reasons for Great Britain's Decline of Industrial Supremacy; (d) What Could a Local Municipal Exhibit Teach to the Community? (e) The Victorian Era in Literature.

Address: New Views of Public School Education.

Review: Article on "German Municipal Social Service," by Howard Woodhead, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for February.

Discussion: What are Legitimate Municipal Social Services in American Cities Today.

Additional program material may be found in "Current Events Programs," "Suggestive Programs for Local Circles," "The Travel Club," etc., on other pages of this issue of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Correspondence or inquiries may be addressed to the Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, Chautauqua, New York.



## COUNSELORS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE

JESSE L. HURLBUT, D. D.

LYMAN ABBOTT, D. D.

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JAMES H. CARLISLE, LL. D.

WM. C. WILKINSON, D. D.

W. P. KANE, D. D.

MISS KATE F. KIMBALL, Executive Secretary.

"Who knows? who knows?  
There are great truths that pitch their shining  
tents  
Outside our walls; and though but dimly seen  
In the gray dawn, they will be manifest  
When the light widens into perfect day."



### A NEW C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAY

*Dear Fellow Students:*

We live in a practical world. And it is also a world of dreams and visions. Every great invention, like every other step in human progress, has had its beginnings in the thought of some dreamer—possibly a dreamer who at the same time toiled with his hands, that he might make his vision effective for a human world. When we forget the ideal in our quest of the practical, the spirit of human brotherhood is sure to languish; and the hands of the world's clock to turn backwards. Russia and Japan are trying to settle a great international problem in what many people think is the only final practical way. But a new day is already foreshadowed in this our twentieth century.

"Wherefore let no scorn  
Greet those who in the midnight grope for  
morn  
And dream that war's red banner shall be  
furled."

Our own country is taking the lead in movements making for international peace, and Chautauqua's "Social Progress Year" is a fitting time to inaugurate a new C. L. S. C. memorial day. We shall henceforth celebrate May 18th, the date of the opening of the First Hague Conference, as International Peace Day. Special programs will be provided for Circles and Chautauqua readers, who have shown themselves such enthusiastic students of social progress, will not need to be urged to use their influence in behalf of universal peace.

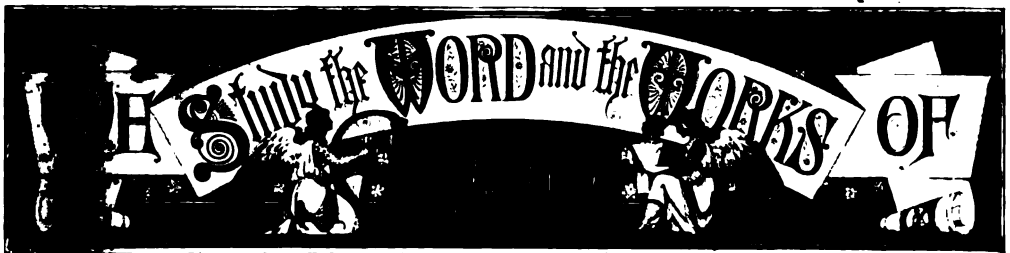
JOHN H. VINCENT.

Indianapolis, Ind., Dec. 16, 1904.



### THE C. L. S. C. MOTTOES

The three Chautauqua mottoes which stand at the head of the memorial days each month in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, are significant of the spirit of the C. L. S. C. They suggest the broad outlook, the deeply religious atmosphere, and the unwavering courage which the Circle seeks to cultivate in its members. It is worth while to be reminded often of these Chautauqua mottoes, and in many a home where they have been framed and hung in



the Chautauqua corner or elsewhere, they have helped busy students in time of need. Some years ago the Prang Art Company designed and lithographed the mottoes in attractive style, and arrangements have



#### EXILED QUEEN OF HANOVER

This is the latest picture of Ex-queen Marie of Hanover. Born a princess of Saxe Altenburg, she was from 1887 to 1866 queen of Hanover. Since Prussia's appropriation of their kingdom, the royal family has lived in Austria, where King George V died in 1878. The aged queen who is distinguished for the strength and beauty of her character, has recently suffered another great loss by the death of her daughter Princess Mary, who has been a singularly devoted companion of her mother during these almost forty years of exile.

recently been made by which they may be supplied to readers at a special price—the three mottoes for fifty cents—by ordering from the Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, New York. A very simple, narrow gilt moulding or a frame of wood in dull finish with a narrow band of gilt next to the motto form suitable frames for the mottoes, and if they can be hung against a background of plain wall paper of a quiet tint they will be found very affective.

#### ISOLATED MEMBERS OF '06

The following letter from a member of '06 suggests the widespread enthusiasm which pervades the "John Ruskin" class. Ruskin once said, "No true disciple of mine will ever be a Ruskinian. He will follow not me but the instincts of his own soul, and the guidance of its Creator." And so these two Chautauquans are making ranch life a school of high thinking. disciples of Ruskin in the very sense that he could have wished. Here is the letter:

I am glad at last to be able to send the questions for last year. Have had them answered for some time but have been unable to get them copied. I enclose \$5.00 to pay for the literature for next year. It is not always easy to find time necessary but when I do I feel that it is time well spent. In fact the Chautauqua Course is the link between us and civilization, not that people are not civilized in eastern Montana but we, another young man and I, herd a band of 2,500 sheep on the range and we see few people. I hope to be at Chautauqua in 1906 and that this year the course has a wider circle of readers than ever before.



This month is an especially appropriate time for the Class of 1906, the "John Ruskin" class, to reread some of the stirring messages of their great leader. Our study programs for March deal with the great changes in England during the Victorian period and of Ruskin's influence. Mr. Frederic Harrison once said of Ruskin. "As preacher, prophet (nay, some amongst us do not hesitate to say as saint) he has done more than a Master of Art—his moral and social influence on our time, more than his aesthetic impulse will be the chief memory for which our descendants will hold him in honor."



#### READING JOURNEY BIBLIOGRAPHY

In connection with the Reading Journey article in this issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN on German "Town and Country Byways" the appended list of novels, stories and other references will be of special interest:

Theodore Storm: "Ein grünes Blatt." A short story of the heath.

Julius Wolff: "Der Sulfmeister." A story of Lüneburg in the middle of the fifteenth century, of the power of the guilds, and of the struggle between the town, the emperor and the pope.

Thomas Mann: "Buddenbrooks." Scene laid in Lübeck. One of the popular books of 1904.



HIGGINS MEMORIAL HALL, CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.

A. von der Elbe: "Apollonia von Celle." The story of the resistance of Kloster Weinhausen, one of the Lüneburg Klöster, to the teachings of the Reformation.

Gustav Frenssen. "Jörn Uhl." A novel of peasant life in Holstein. (The most popular novel of 1901-2. See article in *The Critic* for December, 1902.)

Hermann Sudermann: "Dame Care." A story of peasant life in East Prussia.

Gustav Freytag: "Debit and Credit." A story of merchant life in Breslau in the middle of the nineteenth century.

Fritz Reuter: "Ut mine Stromtid." Sketches of peasant life and character written in the Mecklenburg dialect. Reuter is Germany's greatest humorist.

Dr. Richard Linde: "Die Lüneburger Heide." Published by Velhagen and Klasing, 1904. A beautifully illustrated and most interesting monograph.

Bothge: "Die Worpsweder." A sketch of the Worpswede artists in the series of illustrated handbooks, *Die Kunst*, edited by Richard Muther.

Kuno Francke: "Social Forces in German Literature." (New edition.)

Hugo Münsterberg: *American Traits*, and "Die Amerikaner."



## HIGGINS MEMORIAL AT CHAUTAUQUA

It will be of interest to many Chautauquans to know that the recently elected governor for the State of New York, Hon. Frank W. Higgins, has for many years past shown his interest in popular education by efficient service as one of the

trustees of Chautauqua Institution. Higgins Memorial Hall, one of the first buildings of permanent material to be erected at Chautauqua, was the gift of Senator Higgins and his sister in memory of their father. The exercise of good taste and wise forethought in the erection of this attractive little hall has made it one of the most useful buildings at Chautauqua. It is the home of the "Outlook Club," a favorite place for musical recitals, art exhibitions and receptions, and has proved a cosy gathering place for the local church community during the winter.



## DOING OUR OWN THINKING

Next month when you read the chapter on Balzac in "Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century" don't let yourself rest content with the glimpse of Balzac which Professor Warren gives but secure a copy of "Eugenie Grandet" and discover for yourself the splendid qualities of its author. Let it be characteristic of us as Chautauquans that we do not let anyone do our thinking for us. Get your own impressions of Balzac, then reread



the chapter in "Ten Frenchmen" and see how much more it will mean to you. Ruskin once replied to a friend who invited him to lecture in Glasgow, that every body wanted to hear, nobody to read, nobody to think, and summed up the



#### AT CHAUTAUQUA IN WINTER

The landscape upon which the Bryant Bell looks out.

situation rather despairingly in these words:

To be excited for an hour and if possible amused, to get the knowledge it has cost a man half his life to gather, first sweetened up to make it palatable and then kneaded into the smallest possible pills—and to swallow it homeopathically and be wise—It is not to be done. A living comment quietly given to a class on a book they are earnestly reading—this kind of lecture is eternally necessary and wholesome.

Since we are supplied with the "living comment" let us be sure that we do the "earnest reading." This masterpiece of Balzac, "Eugenie Grandet," can be secured through the Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y., for sixty cents. For a Circle of ten this would be an expense of six cents per member. In the case of a Circle the important thing is for each member to have read the book before the meeting when the program calls for a study of Balzac. Try the plan suggested in the program of March 3-10 and see if the experience isn't well worth while.



"To know what you prefer instead of humbly saying amen to what the world tells you you ought to prefer is to have kept your soul alive."—Robert Louis Stevenson.

#### TWO FAMOUS GERMAN NOVELS

Among other supplementary books especially to be recommended with next month's reading are Sudermann's "Dame Care" (Chautauqua Press, \$1.00) and Freytag's "Debit and Credit" (Chautauqua Press, 60 cents). References are made to both of these works in the final chapter of our "Studies in German Literature." They are well worth reading not only as typical masterpieces of German literature but because of the light they throw upon German life and customs. Sudermann's novel "Dame Care" introduces us to the rural life of the people of East Prussia, an especially timely book to supplement the Reading Journey in German "Town and Country Byways." Freytag's "Debit and Credit" has had a very wide influence and gives us an inner view of the life of the German merchant. As in the case of Balzac's "Eugenie Grandet" above referred to, Circles are urged to provide themselves with these books and to read and discuss them together. The reason why we waste so much time on light weight current books is often due to the fact that our friends are reading them and we drift along because they are drifting. Let us instead reverse the process, make a point of getting books that are worth while and then allure our friends into a better literary atmosphere.



#### AUGHT, OUGHT OR NAUGHT

It is so easy to slip into incorrect or inelegant forms of speech. How many intelligent people of our acquaintance say "ought" when they mean "naught" or "cipher;" and would they spell it "aught" or "ought?" How many times have we come face to face with barren moments in our literary experience when our ideas refused to clothe themselves in anything but the most commonplace garments. One of the pleasures of studying the works of a series of writers is in noticing their varying gifts in the use of adjectives.

Sometime when you have a few moments of leisure, sit down and run through our Reading Journey articles for this year. This form of descriptive writing calls for frequent use of adjectives and you will find it quite illuminating to see how the individuality of each author expresses itself. As you read, jot down some of these adjectives, make a list of them and keep it in some convenient place where you can consult it easily. Then try using the adjectives in conversation, taking three or four for a day's practice. After a time you will not only discover that your powers of expression are growing more flexible but you will be more sensitive to the speech and writings of others and will become a more careful and critical student of your own vocabulary.



#### SOME GAMES

In these hurrying days of meetings, clubs, entertainments, church sociables and the like, there still survive some blessed communities where the family fireside is the center of long, happy hours on cold winter nights and games and stories play an important part. In such

cosy centers Chautauqua readers who are fortunate enough to have young people about them can turn their recent stores of knowledge to mutual advantage. Most boys and girls would keenly enjoy the fun of making a game of familiar quotations using the Chautauqua books as a quarry. Fifty blank cards numbered, and a "key" list to be referred to, are all the machinery that is needed. Another good game is that of matching quotations. Select twenty-five or more good quotations from the poets (a good plan, by the way, for learning some of Heine's "songs" this year) and after listing and numbering them, divide each quotation and put it on two cards, the first card being numbered to correspond with the key. The cards are then distributed and the game consists in matching the quotations correctly. The person holding the first part of the quotation reads it and if the one holding the second half recognizes it, he receives the card. If he fails to do so and anyone can recall the quotation from memory, the two cards pass to him, the holder of the card having the first chance to guess.



### OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS

#### C. L. S. C. MOTTOES

*"We Study the Word and the Works of God." "Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst." "Never be Discouraged."*

#### C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

OPENING DAY—October 1.  
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.  
MILTON DAY—December 9.  
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.  
LANIER DAY—February 3.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.  
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.  
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.  
INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY—May 18.  
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.  
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.  
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.  
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.



### OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR MARCH

MARCH 3-10—  
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: German Master Musicians. Beethoven Part II.  
Required Book: Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century. Balzac.  
MARCH 10-17—  
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: German Town and Country Byways.  
Required Book: Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century. Zola.

MARCH 17-24—  
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Social Progress in Europe.  
Required Book: Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century. Renan.  
MARCH 24-31—  
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Social Progress in Europe. Reread.  
Required Book: Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century. Pasteur and De Lesseps.

## SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

## MARCH 3-10—

Roll-call: Reports on paragraphs in Highways and Byways and other items of current interest bearing upon the reading course for this year.

Reading: Selection regarding Messrs. Erckmann and Chatrian in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for February, '04.

Review of Chapter on Balzac in "Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century."

Paper: Comparison between Victor Hugo and Balzac.

Study of Eugenie Grandet (assuming that all members have read the book. If not, the outline of the story should first be given):

- (a) Reading of selections from the description of Saumur in the opening chapter.
- (b) Reports on the chief characters by means of brief quotations which set forth their traits. The circumstances which call forth each quotation should, of course, be stated.
- (c) Discussion of brief written answers by each member to the question (1) what idea would you form of the author of this book from the book itself? (2) In what respects do you agree with his opinions and (3) in what disagree? Each one should be prepared to give reasons for his opinions.

## MARCH 10-17—

Roll-call: Reports on the chief political divisions of Germany with some facts about each. The Circle should have a wall map to consult or each member should be supplied with a small map.

Paper: Social Divisions in Germany (see "German Life in Town and Country," "Germany and the Germans," "Imperial Germany," etc.)

Discussion of Reading Journey Article—How many and what different types of German life does it picture?

Review of Sudermann's novel "Dame Care," with reading of selections or review of Freytag's novel "Debit and Credit" with selections or of article on "German Municipal Social Service" in this number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Readings from "Elizabeth and Her German Garden," "A Solitary Summer," or "The Benefactress," all by the same author and giving pictures of German life. See also "The Library Shelf" for Hardy's description of the Heath.

Discussion: Germany's Polish Problem. The Circle should take sides, one side looking at the question from the German and the other from the Polish standpoint. (See "Germany and Her Polish Subjects," *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* 34:573, March, 1902; "The Polish Problem in Prussia," *Forum*, 33:259; "Japan and the Regeneration of Poland," *Review of Reviews*, 30:562; "Economic Struggle be-

tween Germans and Poles," *Review of Reviews*, 30:619, Nov., 1904.)

## MARCH 17-24—

Review of chapter on Renan.

Roll-call: Members giving favorite quotations from hymns, or works of poets or prose writers expressing great fundamental religious truths. It would be interesting if each would give also some quotation from writings of an earlier period expressing theological beliefs now outgrown. These can be found in almost any hymn book, especially those not revised in recent years.

Brief Oral Reports: The Tractarian Movement in England; The Broad Church Movement (see encyclopedias. See also a very interesting chapter [No. V] in "English Social Movements," R. A. Woods.)

Book Review: Charles Kingsley's "Alton Locke."

Paper: Charles Kingsley and his influence as a social reformer. (See "English Social Reformers," Gibbins; "Life of Kingsley," by his wife; Preface to "Alton Locke," by Thomas Hughes, also "Recollections of Kingsley," by F. Max Müller, *Living Age*, 212:385.)

Address: Some changes in religious thinking in America during the last half century. (If the Circle can secure some minister or other leader of thought in the community, a talk on this subject would be helpful.)

## MARCH 24-31—

Review of article on Social Progress.

Paper: John Ruskin's influence upon England. (See "Tennyson, Ruskin, Mill," by Frederic Harrison; "Literary Leaders of Modern England," by W. J. Dawson; "English Social Reformers," Gibbins, and any available works on Ruskin, encyclopedias, etc.)

Reading: Selections from "Literary Leaders of Modern England," pp. 270-3, or other selection from Ruskin's "Unto this Last" or from "The Crown of Wild Olive."

Oral Report: John Burns and his work for English workmen (see *Outlook*, 73:583-9 (March 7, '03)).

Reading: From Cheney's "Industrial and Social History of England," pp. 263-7, showing how England has been preserving her commons for the use of the people; or from Carlyle's "Past and Present," showing his view of English social conditions; or from Mrs. Humphrey Ward's "Marcella," showing how present social problems enter into our literature.

Roll-call: Answers to the question: Which two of the "Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century" do you consider have contributed most to the progress of their country? Give reasons for your choice.



## THE TRAVEL CLUB

In the following Travel Club programs those for the last two weeks contain suggestions for programs on some of the German Master Musicians. These have been arranged with reference to the personal side of these musical

artists rather than on a strict musical basis, since the "Travel Club" are presumably looking at Germany from the traveler's point of view. Therefore, these suggestions must not be looked upon as offering any adequate plan

for the study of German Music. Clubs who have this latter purpose in view should make Mr. Surette's articles the basis for their programs and follow them in all details as closely as possible.

#### FIRST WEEK—

Roll-call: Reports on the chief political divisions of Germany with some facts about the ruling house in each. The Club should have a wall map to consult or each member should be supplied with a small map (see encyclopedias).

Review of Reading Journey Article.

Brief Papers: Inscriptions upon German houses; Old Rural Customs; (see "German Life in Town and Country").

Reading: Description of the Heath by Thomas Hardy (see The Library Shelf).

Review of Sudermann's novel "Dame Care" with reading of selections.

Paper: Some rural problems in Germany and how the government is meeting them (see "German Life in Town and Country," "Germany and the Germans," etc. *The Scientific American* supplement 56:23, 396-8, Dec. 26, '03, has an article on scientific potato cultivation in Germany).

#### SECOND WEEK—

Paper: Social Divisions in Germany (see "Germany and the Germans," "German Life in Town and Country," etc.)

Roll-call: Incidents illustrating social distinctions in Germany (see novels of German life, histories of German literature and other sources referred to in bibliographies.)

Discussion: Germany's Polish problem. The club should divide, one half looking at it from a German standpoint and the other from a Polish one (see "Germany and her Polish Subjects," *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* 34:573, Mar., 1902; "The Polish Problem in Prussia," *Forum*, 33:259; "Japan and the Resurrection of Poland," *Review of Reviews*, 30:562; "Economic Struggle between Servians and Poles," *Review of Reviews*, 30:169; Short Paper on Gustav Freytag and his work (see "Studies in German Literature," R. Hochdoerfer, and all other works on German

literature). Review of Freytag's novel "Debit and Credit" with reading of selections.

#### THIRD WEEK—

Roll-call: Contemporary events in Germany in the time of Bach. Items of interest regarding the social, political and religious life of that time intended to show the atmosphere which surrounded him.

Paper: Chief events of Bach's career (see bibliography in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, 40: 58, Sept., '04.)

Readings: Glimpses of Bach's personality.

Map Review: Germany of Bach's and Handel's time and the localities associated with them.

Oral Report: Significant events in the life of Handel. (See Grove's "Dictionary of Music and Bibliography" in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, 40,151, Oct., '04.)

Paper: Music in Italy at this time (See Grove's Dictionary under "Opera.")

Reading: Incidents in the career of Handel (see Bibliography as above).

Music: Illustrative selections from Bach and Handel compared. (See Mr. Surette's studies in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*).

#### FOURTH WEEK—

Roll-call: Incidents in the life of Haydn.

Oral Report: The general character of Haydn's music (see Bibliography in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, 40:252, Nov., '04.)

Music: Illustrative selections from Haydn (see above article in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.)

Oral Report: Some steps in the evolution of German music up to this time (see articles on German Master Musicians in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, September to January, '04-5).

Map Review: Localities associated with Haydn, Mozart and Beethoven and incidents connected with their life in these places.

Paper: Beethoven's life in its relation to his work (see bibliography in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, 40:444, Jan., '05).

Brief Report on Mozart's life and influence (see *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, 40:344, Dec., '04).

Music: Illustrative selections from Beethoven compared with those from Mozart.

## ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON FEBRUARY READINGS

### SOCIAL PROGRESS IN EUROPE

1. The Industrial Revolution occurred in England before it did on the continent because of: (a). Long continued peace and order. (b). Earlier break down of the guild system. (c). More spirit of enterprise and self help. (d). Wealth more influential socially. 2. A tenant or landholder—not necessarily a tiller of the soil. 3. Mrs. Browning's "Cry of the Children," and Hood's "Song of the Shirt." 4. "The Wealth of Nations," published in 1776. 5. An English novelist and political writer (1661-1731). His most famous work is "Robinson Crusoe." 6. Goldsmith's "Deserted Village."

### A READING JOURNEY IN BELGIUM AND GERMANY

1. 23 monarchies and 3 republics: Hamburg, Lübeck and Bremen. 2. "The liberty which our fathers gained let posterity strive worthily

to preserve." 3. A union of German states for the maintenance of a common tariff or uniform rates of duty on imports from other countries and of free trade among themselves. It is now coextensive with the German Empire. 4. The city; but they are operated by a private company paying the city a high rental and rendering excellent service under the strict supervision of the city authorities. 5. They are in the hands of private companies who pay the city a tax of one pfennig per passenger, in addition to all ordinary taxes levied by the city. At the expiration of the charter the property of the company reverts to the city. 6. One-half of the eighteen members of the Senate must have studied law or finance and seven of the remaining nine must be members of the Merchants' Guild. 7. Klopstock was a noted German poet (1724-1803). 8. Germany's population is 56,000,000; that of Great Britain 41,000,000. 9. Rome, Venice, Pisa, Florence, Lübeck.

## THE LIBRARY SHELF

In our Reading Journey, this month, through Town and Country Byways in Germany, we are to wander on the picturesque Lüneburg Heath, the chosen home of an artist community and of other dwellers also whose individuality seems in a peculiar way to belong to the heath. Perhaps we may get additional pleasure from the experience by reading at this time the famous description of the English heath which Thomas Hardy has written in the opening chapter of his "Return of the Native." To be sure the Channel rolls between Hardy's heath and Lüneburg, but a heath is a heath and in this case they both bear the distinguishing touch of nature which gives one the power to interpret the other—and Mr. Hardy's exquisite description is too beautiful to be missed.

A Saturday afternoon in November was approaching the time of twilight, and the vast tract of unenclosed wild known as Egdon Heath embrowned itself moment by moment. Overhead the hollow stretch of whitish cloud shutting out the sky was as a tent which had the whole heath for its floor.

The heaven being spread with this pallid screen and the earth with the darkest vegetation, their meeting-line at the horizon was clearly marked. In such contrast the heath wore the appearance of an instalment of night which had taken up its place before its astronomical hour was come: darkness had to a great extent arrived hereon, while day stood distinct in the sky. Looking upwards, a furze-cutter would have been inclined to continue work; looking down, he would have decided to finish his faggot and go home. The distant rims of the world and of the firmament seemed to be a division in time no less than a division in matter. The face of the heath by its mere complexion added half an hour to evening; it could in like manner retard the dawn, sadden noon, anticipate the frowning of storms scarcely generated, and intensify the opacity of a moonless midnight to a cause of shaking and dread.

In fact, precisely at this transitional point of the nightly roll into darkness the great and particular glory of the Egdon waste began, and nobody could be said to understand the heath who had not been there at such a time. It could best be felt when it could not clearly be seen, its complete effect and explanation lying in this and the succeeding hours before the next dawn: then, and only then, did it tell its true tale. The spot was, indeed, a near relation of night, and when night showed itself, an apparent tendency to gravitate together could be perceived in its shades and the scene. The somber stretch of rounds and hollows seemed to rise and meet the evening gloom in

pure sympathy, the heath exhaling darkness as rapidly as the heavens precipitated it. And so the obscurity in the air and the obscurity in the land closed together in a black fraternization towards which each advanced half way.

The place became full of a watchful intentness now; for when other things sank brooding to sleep the heath appeared slowly to awake and listen. Every night its Titanic form seemed to await something; but it had waited thus, unmoved, during so many centuries, through the crisis of so many things, that it could only be imagined to await one last crisis—the final overthrow.

It was a spot which returned upon the memory of those who loved it with an aspect of peculiar and kindly congruity. Smiling champignons of flowers and fruit hardly do this, for they are permanently harmonious only with an existence of better reputation as to its issues than the present. Twilight combined with the scene of Egdon Heath to evolve a thing majestic without severity, impressive without showiness, emphatic in its admonitions, grand in its simplicity. The qualifications which frequently invest the facade of a prison with far more dignity than is found in the facade of a palace double its size, lent to this heath a sublimity in which spots renowned for beauty of the accepted kind are utterly wanting. Fair prospects wed happily with fair times; but alas, if times *Le not fair!* Men have oftener suffered from the mockery of a place too smiling for their reason than from the oppression of surroundings oversadly tinged. Haggard Egdon appealed to a subtler and scarcer instinct, to a more recently learnt emotion, than that which responds to the sort of beauty called charming and fair.

Indeed, it is a question if the exclusive reign of this orthodox beauty is not approaching its last quarter. The new Vale of Tempe may be a gaunt waste in Thule: human souls may find themselves in closer and closer harmony with external things wearing a somberness distasteful to our race when it was young. The time seems near, if it has not actually arrived, when the chastened sublimity of a moor, a sea, or a mountain will be all of nature that is absolutely in keeping with the moods of the more thinking among mankind. And ultimately, to the commonest tourist, spots like Iceland may become what the vineyards and myrtle-gardens of South Europe are to him now; and Heidelberg and Baden be passed unheeded as he hastens from the Alps to the sand-dunes of Scheveningen.

The most thorough-going ascetic could feel that he had a natural right to wander on Egdon: he was keeping within the line of legitimate indulgence when he laid himself open to influences such as these. Colors and beauties so far subdued were, at least, the birthright of all. Only in summer days of highest feather did its mood touch the level of gaiety. Intensity was more usually reached by way of the solemn than by way of the brilliant, and such a sort of intensity was often arrived at during winter darkness, tempests and mists. Then Egdon was aroused to reciprocity; for the storm was its lover, and the wind its friend. Then it became the home of

strange phantoms; and was found to be the hitherto unrecognized original of these wild regions, of obscurity which are vaguely felt to be compassing us about in midnight dreams of flight and disaster, and are never thought of after the dream till revived by scenes like this.

It was at present a place perfectly accordant with man's nature—neither ghastly, hateful, nor ugly; neither commonplace, unmeaning, nor tame; but, like man, slighted and enduring; and withal singularly colossal and mysterious in its swarthy monotony. As with some persons who have lived apart, solitude seemed to look out of its countenance. It had a lonely face, suggesting tragical possibilities.

This obscure, obsolete, superseded country figures in Domesday. Its condition is recorded therein as that of heathy, furzy, briary wilderness—"Bruaria." Then follows the length and breadth in leagues; and, though some uncertainty exists as to the exact extent of this ancient lineal measure, it appears from the figures that the area of Egdon down to the present day has but little diminished. "Turbaria Bruaria"—the right of cutting heath-turf—occurs in charters relating to the district. "Overgrown with heath and mosses," says Leland of the same dark sweep of country.

Here at least were intelligible facts regarding landscape—far-reaching proofs productive of genuine satisfaction. The untameable, Ishmaelish thing that Egdon now was it always had been. Civilization was its enemy; and ever since the beginning of vegetation its

soil had worn the same antique brown dress, the natural and invariable garment of the particular formation. In its venerable one coat lay a certain vein of satire on human vanity in clothes. A person on a heath in raiment of modern cut and colors has more or less an anomalous look. We seem to want the oldest and simplest clothing where the clothing of the earth is so primitive.

To recline on a stump of thorn in the central valley of Egdon, between afternoon and night, as now, where the eye could reach nothing of the world outside the summits and shoulders of heathland which filled the whole circumference of its glance, and to know that everything around and underneath had been from prehistoric times as unaltered as the stars overhead, gave ballast to the mind adrift on change, and harassed by the irrepressible New. The great inviolate place had an ancient permanence which the sea cannot claim. Who can say of a particular sea that it is old? Distilled by the sun, kneaded by the moon, it is renewed in a year, in a day, or in an hour. The sea changed, the fields changed, the rivers, the villages, and the people changed, yet Egdon remained. Those surfaces were neither so steep as to be destructible by weather, nor so flat as to be the victims of floods and deposits. With the exception of an aged highway, and a still more aged barrow presently to be referred to—themselves almost crystallized to natural products by long continuance—even the trifling irregularities were not caused by pickaxe, plow, or spade, but remained as the very finger-touches of the last geological change.



## NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES

A messenger with the foreign mail arrived just as the Round Table was settling down to work. Pendragon glanced over the packages, selecting first one which bore a Canadian stamp. "Here's an interesting bit of news," he said as he examined the contents of the parcel. "Last month you remember we had a pamphlet on Chautauqua in Russia, a reprint of an article which appeared in a Russian magazine. Here is a communication from Lieutenant John D. Rogers of England, with a copy of *The Fireside* magazine to which he contributes a four page article on Chautauqua. Members of the Class of 1904 take a good deal of pride in claiming this classmate, for he showed his public spirit at the outset by starting a Circle on H. M. S. *Terror* in the Bermudas where he was stationed four years ago. I see from his letter that he is just starting for Australia. He closes by saying 'I have been most interested and learned a great deal from the four years course, and my visit to Chautauqua will long live in my memory.' I am sure the heartiest good wishes of the Round Table will go with him, and as the wide world is the Englishman's home, we are sure he will find congenial companions, and, who knows, quite probably some other wandering Chautauquans."



Another section of the foreign mail disclosed a small pamphlet in a buff cover. "More Chautauqua developments," commented Pendragon. "Many of you haven't seen this interesting little pamphlet before and I am delighted to know that the National Home Read-

ing Union, of England, which it represents is still so active and useful. It has done a noble work for nearly twenty years and we are proud to claim it as one of Chautauqua's oldest children. I see here is a letter from Norway," he continued, "from Mr. Madshus, our '06 Norse teacher. You remember how interested he became in the American reading last year, even to the extent of getting up a course of lectures based on Professor Ely's 'Evolution of Industrial Society.' I see he says that he has been asked to repeat the lectures in two places this winter in another course of the Extension school and in the newly organized 'Workingmen's Academy.' Of this year's studies he writes: 'Of course, it is interesting to a European to see how he looks when viewed from a distance. Being familiar with Western history before, the work is not so hard as interesting. I do not know which of the books is most delightful. But then the series of German Master Musicians! Being somewhat of a musician myself I enjoy that part of the course most thoroughly.'"

"Apropos of this subject of German Musicians, I hope that we shall have a good deal in the way of musical experiences from our Circles during the next three months. In talking with Mr. Surette, the author of the article the other day, he expressed great interest in the work of the C. L. S. C. and hoped that the Circles would give some genuinely conscientious study to these articles and arrange to carry out the suggestions carefully. I hope none of our Circles will be satisfied

with mere biographical details of the musicians followed by the playing of one or two selections from their works. To get the best help from the articles they ought to be studied carefully. Let the Circles appoint an extra meeting or at least a special meeting for the study of say Mozart. Every member should bring the article, having read it several times till he appreciates Mozart's relation to the



COVER HEADING OF "THE NATIONAL HOME READING UNION MAGAZINE"

times in which he lived, his personal characteristics, etc. Then have some musical person appointed to give a brief survey of German music as we have already traced its development under Bach and Handel and Haydn, giving perhaps a few brief illustrative passages from their works. Some skilful musician who has gone carefully over the lesson beforehand and who is provided with the necessary music should now take up the Mozart sonata, rendering it upon the piano and stopping at intervals to illustrate the points brought out in the lesson."

"I want to give my experience as an individual reader," said a Kentuckian, "with these musical studies. I can't play at all but I've always wanted to understand music better for I enjoy it intensely. None of my friends are Chautauqua readers, but several of them play very well and they agreed to undertake my musical training! So once a month we have met at the home of a friend who has a piano and I must say that it has opened up a new world to me. Do let me say to these other readers, 'don't be frightened by the bars of music scattered up and down the page. There are plenty of musical people, teachers of the piano, etc., who will be glad to interpret them for you and I think many of them will thank you for calling their attention to the articles.'"

"These order blanks," said Pendragon indicating a file before him, "show that our members are trying the plan. The letters represent orders for music from Connecticut to Colorado and, of course, in the case of many of our Circles they can secure the music without buying it."

"I must confess," said the president of the Harvard, Nebraska, Circle, "that the 'Musicals' have been a little too much for us. None

of us are skilled pianists, and our town is an agricultural region of only a few hundred people. But we may accomplish something yet if we can find some one to help us. Don't think, however, that this is a cause of discouragement. We don't know the meaning of the word. We have leaders in charge of the various topics that we are studying and the Circle is most enthusiastic. There are ten of us all members of 1908 and we believe firmly in our motto, especially the last part 'Not to yield.' We have done some outside reading in connection with our studies, 'Quentin Durward' as a side light on Belgium, 'Tale of Two Cities' and some other selected readings."

"We are much farther west than these Nebraska neighbors, but I don't believe we are quite so isolated," commented a tall delegate from Colorado. "We're having a sort of Chautauqua Renaissance in Boulder with our splendid Circle of seventy-one members of 1908. The enthusiasm makes things go in spite of themselves. Everybody is interested and we shall take pride in keeping up the record of having the largest circle in the Class of 1908. I wish you could have heard a fine address that we had in the late fall, by one of our pastors on 'religious belief as a factor in the French Revolution.' He reviewed and summed up our study of the subject in such telling fashion that it made a profound impression."

"The ease with which a Circle can spring up," remarked a minister from Mitchell, South Dakota, "is a clear illustration to my mind of the exceeding practicability of the Chautauqua plan. Our Circle of fifteen is a most informal organization resulting from a chance conversation with a few friends. Our town of six thousand is quite well supplied with reference books through the Carnegie, and Wesleyan University libraries. We haven't gone much outside of the course but the books themselves lead to very extensive comparing of notes and often quite diverse points of view come up, so there has been no absence of live discussion. We hope to do credit to our class, although we did start out with scarcely a realization of our responsibilities as part of the great Chautauqua host."

"The peaceful life which citizens of North Dakota must lead presents a strong contrast to ours," laughed a delegate from St. Louis. "Of course, we have been only too grateful for the privileges of the World's Fair and the joy of welcoming our friends—but you can imagine that it took some grit to keep a Chautauqua Circle going during these last three weeks. In fact I don't just see how we came to start it. But we did and we can't help being proud of it. We have twenty members all belonging to the Young Women's Club of Christ Church Cathedral and we've done some good work already. As soon as the holidays are over we shall be able once more to 'see life steadily.'"

"Sir Pendragon," said the Nebraska member from the agricultural town, "I move that this blithesome club of young women be

especially admonished not to forget their German musicians! A Circle actually meeting within the walls of a cathedral church has musical opportunities which it almost unnerves us to reflect upon." The secretary smiled sympathetically as she said, "I think we shall have to get up a musical festival for the benefit of all the isolated 1908's and transport them to our beautiful cathedral. I really begin to fear that we are having too good a time and that something will happen to us."

"Oh, don't worry!" rejoined a cheerful looking kindergartner from Endeavor, Pennsylvania. "Being in a kindergarten so much of the time helps wonderfully to make one's theology optimistic. Make the most of your cathedral and your music while you have them and if we have the chance we'll come and help you. I'm enjoying rather an interesting experience here myself. Don't you admire the name of our town? Perhaps some of you would say that it suggested a much too strenuous life. Come down and try it some time when the snow is three feet deep on a level and see. This is a lumber community, and in connection with the mills there is a kindergarten so we are to hold our Circle meetings, which for a time have been in a private house in our kindergarten rooms. Endeavor is a picturesque spot, the houses being strung along a narrow valley, and some of our members live a mile or more from the most central meeting place, so on Circle nights you can see the lanterns bobbing along in the dark while our devoted 'seventeen' are gathering. We're finding great pleasure in the work and you shall hear more from us later."

"It's quite impossible to do justice to this splendid 1908 delegation," said Pendragon. "I confess I feel rather dismayed as I realize how many of you can't be heard from. Here are letters galore, also, which ought to have some attention. At South Orange, New Jersey, the Methodist Church is rejoicing in a large Circle under Dr. J. L. Hurlbut's direction. The local paper gives a list of some of the topics under discussion and they seem to be going to the very bottom of affairs relating to the French Revolution. The neighboring Circle of River Edge in the same state is in a town of three hundred inhabitants with quite a large foreign population. All seems to be going merrily. Only one old Circle must be allowed the privilege of the floor today and that is the 'Pierian Circle,' of Stillwater, Minnesota. Before we hear from them, however, we must have the report of our fine large Circle at Ravenswood, Illinois. Some of these other 1908 Circles will have to look to their laurels if they keep ahead of Ravenswood."

"This is our first experience as Chautauquans," responded the Ravenswood delegate. "Not even our fathers and mothers first trod

the way for us. I don't know just why, but we seem to be in the position of the families who have to buy their own grandfather's clocks! However, we already begin to feel like old Chautauquans for we've been making history fast. We are a suburb of Chicago so we look up side lights on our reading in the city library occasionally. At one of our early meetings one of our members became so eloquent upon social conditions of George III's time in England, that we have felt impelled ever since to try to be equally illuminating! She confessed afterward that she fell completely under the spell of Traill's 'Social England' and could hardly stop reading it. It made me think of the old times when people used to get what they called 'the power!' But I must tell you we have also specialized a little on the Flemish artists. We secured copies of the 'Masters in Art' and two of our members who are artists worked up a talk on the subject. We managed to borrow some stereopticon slides also and our president gave us a talk on the large cities of Belgium. This supplemented THE CHAUTAUQUAN pictures and enabled us to invite outside people and do something for the community. We are revolving all sorts of schemes in connection with our readings and we are glad to hear that so many other enthusiastic Circles belong to our Class of 1908."

Pendragon explained as he unfolded several papers that the Pierian Circle of Stillwater, Minnesota, was a prison Circle, which had flourished for fourteen years in the prison. "Its membership, of course, changes constantly," he said, "but the men have entire charge of it and take pride in keeping the membership up to an average of over thirty. 'The Mirror,' the prison paper with its hopeful motto, 'It is never too late to mend,' contains reports of the Circle meetings and reprints of many of the papers. So it is evident that the editor of this little sheet is glad to have the coöperation of the Chautauquans. On Sunday, November 10th, the Circle reported a very timely program. Two papers were read on 'The Revolutionary Movement in Russia' and another on 'Russian Ambition' dealing especially with the Russians who came to America. A lively discussion followed these papers. The interest which the Circle takes in labor problems is shown by some of the topics of papers presented this year. 'The Closed Shop,' 'Labor vs. Public Opinion,' 'Profit Sharing,' etc. I see that the members of the Circle extend a cordial welcome to other men to join them and that new members are still being enrolled for this year."

"Let us have a large Round Table next month," said Pendragon, as the delegates lapsed into the free conversation which always followed the Round Table. "We have one or two very important topics which are liable to come up for discussion."





# TALK ABOUT BOOKS

**A BELLE OF THE FIFTIES.** Memoirs of Mrs. Clay, of Alabama, covering Social and Political Life in Washington and the South, 1853-66. Gathered and edited by Ada Sterling. Illustrated from contemporary portraits. 6¼x9. Pp. xxii, 386. \$2.75. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

We are familiar with studies of "Provincial Types in American Fiction"; it is interesting to compare the self-revelation of an actual type of the Southern belle of the days before the Civil War. Here we get the point of view of the charming wife of a senator from the Old South who represented the Confederacy in Canada, was the confidant of Jefferson Davis, with him suffered from suspicion engendered by the assassination of President Lincoln and, although he had surrendered himself, was confined in military prison for months.

We are taken back into a romantic atmosphere of manners suggestive of the eighteenth century. Pride of family, standards-current of society, setting of the fashions, repartee, anecdote, cherished ideals, pities of ruthless war, undefeated spirit—all are set down in elaborate detail, as throwing light upon a period of misunderstanding, although frankly and naively a personal congeries of personalia.

The reader is not left in doubt that Mrs. Clay saw envy of the social prominence of the South as one of the chief causes of the war. One remembers her undisguised if polite contempt of "Lincoln and his men," amidst the utter desolation of Washington, the "Federal City," after the "exodus of Southern society" incident to secession: It has never been the same since, she thinks, the nearest approach being while Mrs. Cleveland was in the White House. By contrast the picture of conditions at Richmond in the last days of the Confederacy is not less interesting. Speaking of the departed glories of the Southland, the statement is made that "From Maryland to Louisiana there had reigned, since colonial times, an undisturbed, peaceful, prosperous democracy, based upon an institution beneficial alike to master and servant. It was implanted in the South by the English settlers, approved by the English rulers, and fostered by thrifty merchants of New England, glad to traffic in black men upon the African coasts who might be had in exchange for a barrel of rum. Generations living under these conditions had

evolved a domestic discipline in Southern homes which was of an ideal order."

Enough has been cited to show points of view. Obviously the main purpose of the book—here the autobiography ends—is to show the injustice heaped upon Mr. Clay, after voluntary surrender to the national authorities who exercised military powers over him which were deemed unwarranted and were criticized by some Northern as well as Southern men even at that time of national excitement.

The editor of the volume has preserved the personality of this belle of the fifties, has cleverly arranged a great mass of detail and verified references to matters of history or controversy, and compels attention from chapter to chapter when one begins to read. F. C. B.

**THE PRINCESS OF HANOVER.** A drama. By Margaret L. Woods. pp. 144. \$1.50. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1903.

Against the background of grossness and intrigue which characterized the electoral court of Hanover at the end of the seventeenth century, the dramatist portrays the dull, sensual elector and his son, later George I of England, and their humiliated wives, the philosophic and clever Electress Sophia, and the beautiful and witty Sophia Dorothea. The drama concerns itself with the latter, the Princess of Hanover, who, goaded to desperation by court suspicion and marital insult, finally accepts the consolations of the lover of her childhood and girlhood—Philipoon Königsmarck—of whom Thackeray says, "One can't imagine a more handsome, wicked, worthless reprobate." On the eve of the Princess's escape from bondage to her unfaithful husband, the lover's plan is discovered, and von Königsmarck is killed in the Hanover palace. The author solves for her purpose the mystery of the disposition of Königsmarck's body—which still remains an unbetrayed secret—by a device which at the same time cleverly helps reveal to the Princess the fate which has overtaken her lover.

C. M. S.

**REMINISCENCES OF AN ASTRONOMER.** By Simon Newcomb. Portrait. 8 vo. \$2.50 net, postage 19 cents. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. An autobiographer who can refer to his birth as "into a world of sweetness and light," is quite likely to have had a life experience worth recording. An enthusiasm for living has been a

distinct note in the career of many a scientific man and Professor Newcomb is a scientist of this type. His autobiography gives one a rare opportunity to come into pleasant every day relations with some of the great scientists of the past fifty years and to appreciate some of the marvelous results which astronomical science achieved during the nineteenth century. But Professor Newcomb is a man also of broad interests and this record of his life experiences includes not only years of study and research in his own profession but observations upon men and events in the old world. Economic and psychic problems also possessed a fascination for him and he studied them with all the enthusiasm of an investigator. Professor Newcomb has recently added to his fame by his conspicuous success in bringing together the notable Congress of Scholars at the St. Louis Exposition. The autobiography is commended to those who would know more of this distinguished scientist and greatest of American astronomers. F. K.

**ROBERT BROWNING.** By James Douglas. Illustrated. pp. 36. 6¼x9. \$75. New York: James Pott & Co.

Fourteen portraits of Robert Browning and views of his various residences in England and Italy make up the illustrative material of the little monograph on Robert Browning in the "Bookman Biographies." The pictures are woven together with a slender thread of critical comment upon the poet's style and work, by James Douglas and to this is added a brief biographical note with some comments upon the portraits and the circumstances under which they were executed. F. K.

**JAPAN: AN ATTEMPT AT INTERPRETATION.** By Lafcadio Hearn. pp. 541. 5½x8. \$2.00. New York: The Macmillan Co.

For the serious student of the Japanese genius among types of civilization Mr. Hearn's last work prior to his death is an unexpected and valuable interpretation. It is particularly sympathetic revelation of Japanese evolution. The author has little patience with the superficial western observation that Japanese religion is no religion. From a painstaking survey of the deeply religious instructions of Japan Mr. Hearn finds a mass of evidence to support Herbert Spencer's theories regarding the evolution of religion in general through ghost and ancestor worship. In this field the author gives us a new point of view and brings to light much that goes to explain the mysteries of Japanese character in our eyes. Old Japan is described in Mr. Hearn's fascinating style and characterized as a marvelous religious communism, with certain charms and advan-

tages but constituting a fearful example to western individualistic nations tempted in that direction. In this particular his work is exceedingly suggestive if not altogether convincing. Mr. Hearn is cautious about predicting results of the impact of western civilization, communistic evolution unfitting the Japanese in certain respects for entering into the competition in vogue among world powers.

F. C. B.

**BACTERIA, YEASTS AND MOULDS, IN THE HOME.** By H. W. Conn, Ph. D. 12mo. pp. 293. \$1.00. Boston: Ginn & Co.

To the housewife or to the student of domestic science this work will be found particularly valuable, discussing as it does in a popular way the phenomena of bacteria, yeasts and moulds in connection with our everyday life. These agents are studied from three points of view: (1) as the cause of the decay and spoiling of food, (2) from the standpoint of their assistance in the preparation of food, and (3) as the cause of contagious diseases. Professor Conn's intimate acquaintance with the subject gives the reader a feeling of certainty that is borne out by the examples and experiments given in illustration. Were the principles of the book more generally understood the question of the relation of food to our health would be simplified. W. B. G.

**THE PSYCHOLOGICAL YEAR BOOK.** By Janet Young. Paper 50 cents. San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co.

Among the novels and attractive publications which account for a reputation well earned by Paul Elder and Company of San Francisco, the "Psychological Year Book" is notable. It contains quotations for every day in the year, showing that the power of thought and right use of the will may attain good results, improve conditions and bring success. Artistic printing and arrangement of contents as well as good judgment in selecting quotations make the volume a gift book that will be as acceptable as it is suggestive. F. C. B.

**THE BETTER NEW YORK.** By Dr. Wm. H. Tolman and Charles Hemstreet; afterword by Josiah Strong. pp. xiv+320. Eighty-seven illustrations. New York: Baker & Taylor Co.

A unique guide book to the wealth of social, industrial, educational, religious, philanthropic, and uplift agencies in New York City. A highly creditable species of sociological census revealing the metropolis in a new light to the reading public. While arranged for practical service to the visitor, the data is of interest to all workers in the cause of civic betterment. F. C. B.

**THE RIVERS CHILDREN.** By Ruth McEnergy Stuart. Illustrated. pp. 175. 4½x7. \$1.00. New York: The Century Co.

A charming story in Negro dialect of life on the Mississippi River. As a delineator of Negro character, speech and customs, Mrs. Stuart has no peer. This little book will be a wholesome addition to her other well known Southern tales.

**RED CAP TALES.** By S. R. Crockett. Illustrated. pp. 412. 6¾x9. \$2.00. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Mr. Crockett suggests in a brief introduction that he originally told these stories to four children as an incentive to read more of Scott's novels, and that the plan has been successful. This is a modest way to describe these fascinating tales. Those who read the first tale from Waverley told in Mr. Crockett's delightful style will not want to stop even to read Sir Walter Scott until they have finished the very last of the "Red Cap Tales." B. M. G.

**A BOOK OF LITTLE BOYS.** By Helen Dawes Brown. Illustrated. pp. 158. 5¼x7¾. \$1.00. New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A book of thoroughly wholesome and entertaining stories for children or grown up people about twelve interesting small boys.

**THE FLOWER PRINCESS.** By Abbie Farwell Brown. Illustrated. pp. 126. 6¼x8¾. \$1.00. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Among the many writers for children there is none whose fairy stories are more artistically and pleasingly written than those of Abbie Farwell Brown. "The Flower Princess" is a charming addition to a library for children.

B. M. G.

**THE STAYING GUEST.** By Carolyn Wells. Illustrated. pp. 300. 5¼x8. \$1.50. New York: The Century Co.

A series of unusual incidents in the life of an unusual child—a strange elf-like little creature who suddenly appears at the home of two staid New England spinsters and soon wins her way into their hearts, one cannot but wonder why. Some of Ladybird's pranks a mother would hardly care to have suggested to her own small children.

B. M. G.

**ROSE IN BLOOM.** By Louisa M. Alcott. Illustrated. pp. 344. 6½x9. \$2.00. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

After reading of the careers of two such unnatural and undesirable children as Jewel and

The Staying Guest, it is a great relief to turn to the story of Rose, the lovely friend of our childhood, and find her just as natural and charming and as true to life as years ago. To reopen the pages of this story is to fall once more under their spell and it is hard to lay the book aside until we have read to the very close.

"Little Women" and other popular stories for young people by Miss Alcott are published in a uniform binding and beautifully illustrated by prominent artists. B. M. G.

**SONNY, A CHRISTMAS GUEST.** By Ruth McEnergy Stuart. Illustrated. pp. 135. 5x7½. \$1.25. New York: The Century Co.

This beautiful story is a welcome guest at any time of year. We cannot read too often these charming tales of Sonny's in which the history of an everyday boy is told in an original manner by a doting father. The book is charmingly illustrated by Fanny Y. Cory. B. M. G.

**SUSAN CLEGG AND HER FRIEND MRS. LATHROP.** By Anne Warner. Illustrated. pp. 227. 6x8¾. \$1.00. Boston: Little Brown & Co.

Susan Clegg was a lady who for originality of speech and manner could far outdo the famous Mrs. Wiggs. The Marrying of Susan Clegg is one of the most amusing descriptions in the book. The stories are bright and clever and especially pleasing to read aloud. G. M. B.

**THE AFFAIR AT THE INN.** By Kate Douglas Wiggin, Mary Findlater, Jane Findlater and Allan McAuley. Six full page illustrations. pp. 220. \$1.25. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A composite automobile story, each writer handling one character by name and the others from that individual's standpoint. Slight, clever, entertaining. F. C. B.

**JIM CROW'S LANGUAGE LESSONS.** By Julia Darrow Cowles. Illustrated. pp. 118. 6x8½. \$50. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Jim Crow is not the only prominent subject of this entertaining book. Dogs, cats and chickens all figure in episodes that are true to life and will be found particularly pleasing to young people. B. M. G.

**A LITTLE BOOK OF POETS' PARLEYS.** Arranged by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke. Illustrated. pp. 69. 6¼x7¾. \$75 net. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

The contents of this cleverly arranged book are well described by the title.

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Thin Chest  
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Do you walk gracefully  
Do you stand correctly  
Weakness  
Lame back  
Dullness  
Irritable  
Nerves  
Headaches  
Catarrh  
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